# MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW

JUNE 1938 VOL. 46, NO. 6

HUGH S. HANNA, *Editor*

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Dream Lake, Estes Park, Rocky Mountain National Park, Colo.

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# *This Issue in Brief*

*Increased Efficiency of Garment Workers.*

A new type of shop production, known as the straight-line system, was introduced into the cotton-garment industry in 1932, and has resulted in an increase of about 20 percent in man-hour output. Indications are that workers employed on the line gained about 10 percent in average weekly earnings. The straight-line system involves more serious nervous and physical strain than the old methods and this has necessitated the introduction of rest periods. Also, it has resulted, as a rule, in the substitution of time payment for payment by the piece. Page 1299.

*Claims Administration in Workmen's Compensation.*

Prompt and expert attention to the claims of injured workers for compensation and also to their need for medical and other services is necessary. The main types of compensation administration in the United States and Canada were examined in a survey by the Bureau of Labor Statistics. A crucial question is whether judicial or administrative safeguards against error and injustice are most desirable in this field. Page 1321.

*Measuring Current Unemployment.*

There has long been felt a need of frequent and periodic checks as to the extent of unemployment. The Federal Censuses of Unemployment of April 1930, January 1931, and November 1937, provided such checks. However, complete Nation-wide censuses at intervals frequent enough to furnish a current indicator of trends are impracticable. With a view to ascertaining whether the United States Employment Service active file of job applications is usable for such a purpose, the article on page 1456 compares the findings of the Census of November 1937 and the active file for the same month. Analysis of the age, sex, race, occupational, and industrial distribution of applicants led to the conclusion that the Employment Service active file will in the near future provide at least a usably accurate cross section of the unemployed population, as it might be measured by a voluntary registration.

*The Cost of Illness.*

The annual cost of illness and premature death in the United States amounts to approximately 10 billion dollars, according to a report submitted to the President by the Technical Committee on Medical Care. It is estimated by the Committee that on an average day of the year 4 million or more persons are disabled by illness, and each year 70 million lose, through illness, more than 1 billion days from work or their customary activities. As a Nation, it is stated, we are doing vastly less to prevent suffering and to preserve health and vitality than we know how to do through tried and tested methods. Page 1369.

*Credit Unions of Industrial Employees.*

The laws authorizing the formation of credit unions commonly provide, as a measure of safeguarding the lending operations, that these organizations shall be formed only among persons having "some common bond." One such bond, usually suggested in the

law, is that of a common employment. Employers themselves have favored the formation of credit unions not only for the benefit of the employees but as a means of eliminating wage garnishments for debts.

Practically all the 4,000 credit unions reporting to the Bureau of Labor Statistics limited their membership to persons within a specific group. There were over 500 credit unions among employees of public utilities (nearly 200 of these were railroad workers). Other large groups were those of public employees and petroleum products workers. Data on membership, loans, and dividends of these organizations are given in an article beginning on page 1357.

*Rentals on P. W. A. Housing Projects.*

Average monthly rentals per room of $2.40 to $6.77 have been established for the housing projects initiated by the Housing Division of the Public Works Administration. These sums represent shelter rent only and do not include charges for heat, hot water, and power for light, cooking, and refrigeration. Variations in the amounts of the charges are accounted for by such factors as land costs, condition of the site, and character of dwellings constructed. The table in the article on page 1362 shows the room rents by cities and projects. The lowest rents are those established in the Virgin Islands, and the highest, those in Dallas, Tex.

*Productivity of Coal-Mine Labor.*

Data showing the variations in productivity and earnings of coal-mine labor have been brought together for a number of the chief coal-producing nations by the International Labor Office. The study shows extremely large differences in output per man per day but a general increase in productivity of labor in recent years. It also appears that increases in earnings have not been commensurate with the rise in productivity and that the wage cost per metric ton of coal mined has tended to decline. Page 1386.

*Negro Workers in New York.*

Equal opportunities for employment have never been accorded Negroes in New York State. The great majority of Negro workers in New York State are confined to the field of unskilled labor and to marginal types of employment. The average income earned by the poorer half of the colored families is less than 50 percent of that of the poorer half of the white people. Low income, and residential segregation with a consequent dearth of housing, have raised rents for Negroes above those paid by white people for similar shelter. Many colored families have been obliged to occupy dwellings unfit for human habitation. These findings are published in the report of the New York State Temporary Commission on the Condition of the Urban Colored Population of New York State. Page 1376.

MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW

FOR JUNE 1938

# SYSTEMS OF SHOP MANAGEMENT IN THE COTTON-GARMENT INDUSTRY [1]

By N. I. Stone

THE most significant technological development that has taken place in the cotton-garment industry in recent years has been the introduction of a new system of shop production, known as the straight-line system. Three main types or systems of shop management are in use in the cotton-garment industry today, which are known as the bundle system, the straight-line system, and the progressive bundle system.

## *The Bundle System*

The most prevalent type is the so-called bundle system, which has been in existence since the beginning of the factory system of production of cotton garments. The factory brought about the division of labor which has resulted in each worker's specializing in one or, at the most, a few operations. In the making of dress shirts, for example, the labor in the sewing department alone, under the bundle system, is divided into from 22 to as many as 39 operations. In the manufacture of overalls, it runs from 24 to 31 operations, and of work pants from 31 to 41.

The old-time tailor or seamstress, with the aid of a pattern, marked on a piece of cloth the outlines of various parts of the garment, which were then cut out with a pair of shears, and the different parts sewed together.

With the introduction of the factory system of producing garments in quantity, instead of to the order of the individual user, the first labor saving occurred in the cutting room. A modern cutting room has rows of long tables, usually from 100 to 200 feet long, on which layers of cloth are piled one on top of the other, reaching 100, 200, and even more layers. This pile is then cut according to pattern markings on the top layer.

After being cut out, the different parts—fronts, backs, sleeves, patches for pockets, collars, etc.—form individual piles, which are usually subdivided into smaller piles of convenient size, each tied into

[1] From a study of the cotton-garment industry made under the direction of Boris Stern of the Bureau of Labor Statistics. The complete survey will be published in a separate bulletin entitled "Labor Productivity in the Cotton-Garment Industry." This is one of a series undertaken by the Bureau of Labor Statistics in cooperation with the National Research Project of the Works Progress Administration.

a bundle. Hence the name, "bundle system." The bundles are taken to the sewing room, where they are distributed among the different workers. In the sewing room, the bundles travel from operator to operator in the course of making the garment.

When a bundle is completed by an operator, it is either delivered by the operator to the foreman or to the work station or is taken away from the operator by the foreman or bundle boy, and then turned over to another operator for the next operation, or stored in a bin or shelf until it is given to a worker for the next operation.

### *The Straight-Line System*

The straight-line system in the cotton-garment industry dates back only to 1932. It was originated in this country by Folkert Allen Schmidt, a well-known industrial engineer and disciple of Frederick Taylor, the originator of "scientific management." Mr. Schmidt first developed this system at the plant of the Stahl-Urban Co., Terre Haute, Ind., in cooperation with Mr. Henry Kramer of that company. In 1934 he was granted United States patents on his system and began to introduce it in other plants in the cotton-garment industry, as well as in some plants manufacturing woolen trousers. The system is still in an early stage of development, but is meeting with increasing favor in the cotton-garment industry.

The straight-line system differs from the so-called bundle system in that it substitutes a single part of a garment for the bundle as a unit of work assigned to individual workers, thus doing away with the bundle. The process of evolution has thus brought the industry back to the original unit of one garment, as in the former days of the tailor and seamstress. However, while the old-time tailor made the complete garment, the line system subdivides many operations even more minutely than was true under the bundle system.

Another important feature is a radical rearrangement of machines in the shop. Under the bundle system, sewing machines are usually arranged in parallel rows running the full length or width of the shop, without regard to the sequence of operations. Machines which can be used for several operations may be assigned to a certain operation and later reassigned to other operations. The reassignment may occur because of the introduction of a new type of garment which requires a larger number of machines on some operations, a smaller number of machines on another operation, and possibly the omission of still another operation altogether. As a result of these constantly recurring changes, even if the machines, when installed, were assigned with a view to sequence of operations, the sequence disappears in the course of time. The resultant haphazard arrangement of the machines in the plant causes the work, as it passes from operation to

operation, to be shunted back and forth from one end of the shop to the other.

Under the straight-line system, the machines are arranged in short rows of from one to three or four each, strictly according to the sequence of operations, so as to insure the direct progress of the work from one operation to the next.

As an additional means of increasing labor productivity, the straight-line system aims at the minutest possible subdivision of operations, as general observation has demonstrated that the more an operation is subdivided—that is, the smaller the number of work elements—the greater the speed which a worker develops in performing the operation. There is the further consideration that the more the work is subdivided, the less the skill required to do an operation and the easier it is to train new workers. This does not necessarily mean, however, that any great difference is to be found between the number of operations in line and bundle plants. Subdivision of operations in bundle plants has been carried so far that in some cases more operations are to be found in bundle than in line plants.

Table 1 shows the extent of the subdivision of work in 64 plants surveyed. They comprise 30 dress-shirt plants, of which 4 are operating on the line system; 17 overall plants, of which 4 are on the line; and 17 work-pants plants, of which 9 are on the line. The table shows the highest, lowest, and average number of operations in each group of plants which are used in making the parts and the body, and in the assembly of the garment.

TABLE 1.—*Comparison of Subdivision of Work in Line and Bundle Systems*

| Product and section | Number of operations | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Bundle system | | | Line system | | |
| | Maximum | Minimum | Average | Maximum | Minimum | Average |
| | 26 plants | | | 4 plants | | |
| Dress shirts: | | | | | | |
| Parts | 17 | 6 | 11.9 | 12 | 9 | 10.5 |
| Body | 16 | 9 | 11.7 | 15 | 11 | 12.5 |
| Assembly | 8 | 5 | 5.5 | 7 | 5 | 6.0 |
| Entire sewing department | 39 | 22 | 29.1 | 31 | 27 | 29.0 |
| | 13 plants | | | 4 plants | | |
| Overalls: | | | | | | |
| Parts | 12 | 6 | 8.0 | 9 | 7 | 7.8 |
| Body | 13 | 7 | 10.7 | 17 | 11 | 14.0 |
| Assembly | 9 | 8 | 8.3 | 10 | 8 | 9.0 |
| Entire sewing department | 31 | 24 | 27.0 | 36 | 28 | 30.8 |
| | 8 plants | | | 9 plants | | |
| Work pants: | | | | | | |
| Parts | 12 | 7 | 9.0 | 12 | 7 | 9.7 |
| Body | 12 | 8 | 10.4 | 15 | 9 | 12.0 |
| Assembly | 17 | 13 | 15.0 | 20 | 13 | 16.3 |
| Entire sewing department | 41 | 31 | 34.4 | 44 | 33 | 38.0 |

Before installing the line system, a study is made to determine the time it takes each individual worker to perform the assigned task. The number of workers assigned to each operation is then so adjusted as to insure as close a balance of work on all operations as possible. To illustrate, if it takes 35 operations to make a shirt in a given plant, there will be a minimum of 35 workers on the line. However, if operation No. 2 takes twice as long as operation No. 1, there will be two operators on operation No. 2 to balance the work of a single operator on operation No. 1. There may be three or four operators on other operations, depending upon the time it takes an individual operator to complete the assigned work.

As the bundle comes from the cutting room, it (or a part of it) is placed at the side of the operator on operation No. 1. As fast as she completes her particular task on a part she places the garment on a bar or in a chute leading to the next operator, instead of retaining it until the entire bundle is completed, as is the procedure under the bundle system. The part is then picked up by operator No. 2 and after she completes her operation it is placed in a similar manner within reach of the worker on operation No. 3. Thus the individual garment or part of a garment progresses from operation to operation until it is completed. Such additional parts as are needed are prepared off the line and are supplied to the particular operators on the line as the garment proceeds from one operation to another.

### EFFECT OF LINE ON EFFICIENCY OF LABOR

The advantages of the straight-line system are many. The most obvious is the elimination of handling, which under the bundle system absorbs a large part of the time of the foreman and his assistants, as well as of the worker. Under the bundle system, each worker must first get her bundle. Whether the bundle is brought to her by the foreman or a bundle boy, or whether she calls for the bundle at a central work station in the shop, there is inevitable loss of time in carrying the bundle to the sewing machine; in untying the bundle and arranging the work for the sewing machine; in assembling the bundle and tying it up when the operator has completed her work; in keeping track of the amount of work completed to make sure that she is paid for all the work she has done, etc. Finally, the repeated interruption in her work between bundles involves an inevitable loss of time in regaining momentum after each interruption. The amount of time thus spent in handling will vary from shop to shop, depending on the efficiency with which it is managed. Nearly all this handling is eliminated under the straight-line system—both management and worker saving much of the time lost in handling.

An analysis of the operations under the bundle system makes it evident that the greatest opportunity for economy of the operator's time is in the handling of the bundle rather than in the sewing operations. Starting from the moment when the bundle is delivered to the operator at the machine, there is untying the bundle, lifting one part at a time, putting two parts of a garment which have to be joined edge to edge so that they will be stitched in an even seam, placing it in position in the machine, lowering the foot,[2] starting the machine, doing the actual stitching, stopping the machine, raising the foot and the needle so as to release the garment, taking the garment out of the machine and placing it to the left of the operator, and then repeating the same cycle of motions and operations until the entire bundle has been completed. Each time a garment or its part is completed, it is piled on top of the preceding garment to the left of the operator until all the parts composing the bundle have been finished, when the bundle is tied up again and delivered to the bundle boy or to the work station. The operator has to go through approximately 10 operations of handling for each operation of actual sewing.

The proportion of the time spent in handling the bundle and manipulating the parts varies with the garment produced and with the parts which make up the garment. Handling, however, always takes more time than sewing, consuming on the average from 67 to 85 percent of the total time of the operator, as against 15 to 33 percent of the total time spent on sewing.

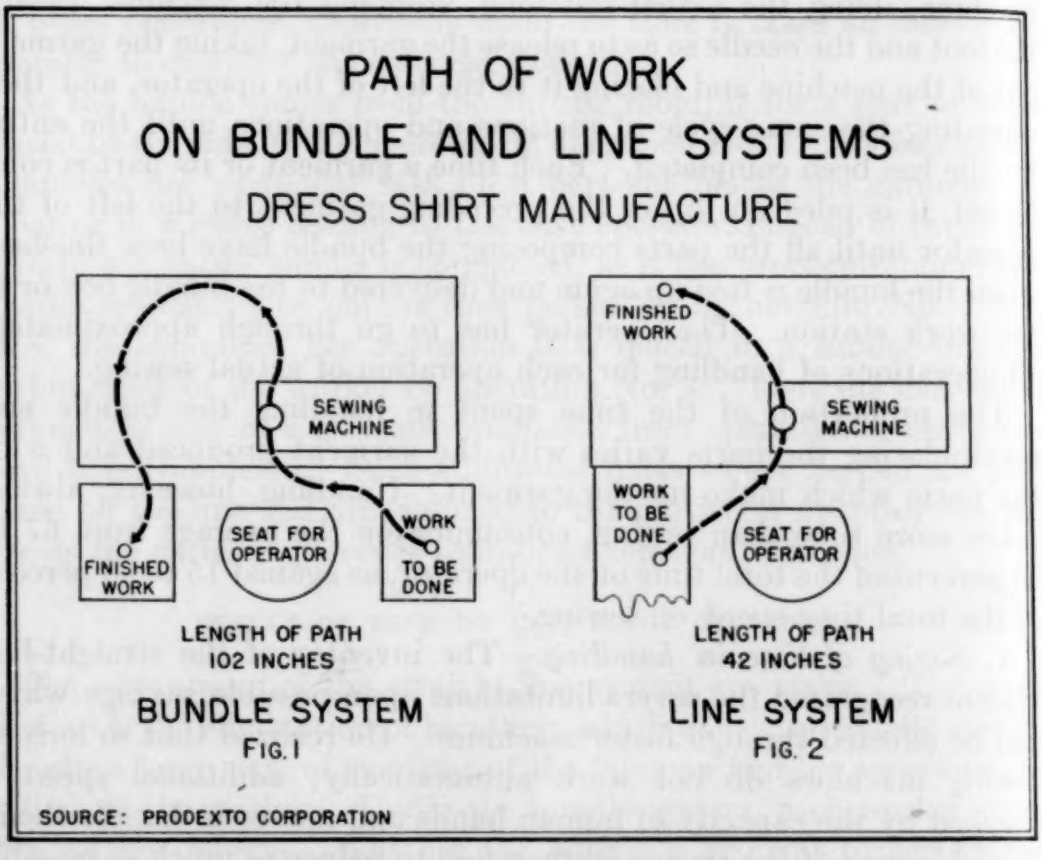
1. *Saving of time in handling.*—The inventor of the straight-line system recognized the severe limitations upon possible savings which can be effected through faster machines. He realized that so long as sewing machines do not work automatically, additional speed is checked by the capacity of human hands and nerves to handle them. The objective of the system is therefore to reduce as much as possible the lost motions in the handling of the work which account for the major part of the total working time of the operator.

Not all of the handling operations, however, are eliminated by the line system. The following chart illustrates the chief time- and energy-saving features of the straight-line system, as contrasted with the bundle system. Figure 1 illustrates the position of the operator, the machine, and the work she is handling under the bundle system. The square to the right of the seat is the rack or workbench on which the bundle of work to be done is placed. The rack is usually placed about 18 inches below the sewing-machine table. In picking up the part to be sewed on, the operator must therefore lift the part vertically a distance of 18 inches. The dotted line shows the path followed by the part being put through the machine by the worker. The same path is described by each succeeding part, the finished work being

[2] The foot is an attachment on the sewing machine for holding the garment in place while the stitching is being done.

piled one part on top of the other to the left of the operator until the entire bundle is completed. By actual measurement, Mr. Schmidt, originator of the system, ascertained that the length of the path described by each part in a typical bundle plant, including both the horizontal and vertical movements, is 102 inches.

Figure 2 illustrates the path followed by the work under the straight-line system. The work rack to the right has disappeared. The work is picked up by the operator from a rack or a chute to her left, which




is placed high enough to be near her elbow thus eliminating the lifting of each piece. The dotted line describes the path of the work under this arrangement. After being stitched, the part is merely pushed forward by the operator with her left hand, landing on a bar or a chute leading to the next operator. The new path is only 42 inches long, thus effecting a saving of 60 inches or 5 feet of path on each garment or part in each operation.

2. *Saving of effort in handling.*—As has been pointed out, the usual location of a workbench or work rack at the machine is approximately 1½ feet below the level of the sewing-machine table. This means that each time the operator picks up a garment, she has to lift it 18 inches and then bring it down 18 inches when it is completed, a total of 3 feet in a vertical direction. Under the straight-line system, the garment is picked up from a chute placed at the level of the operator's

elbow, approximately 6 inches below the level of the sewing-machine table to the left of the operator.

In the case of an operator working on trousers, for example, the line system makes possible a great saving of effort.[3] In the course of a day's work a worker must lift about 2,000 pounds, or 1 ton, of material into place for sewing. Under the bundle system she must lift this weight to a vertical distance of 18 inches, as against 6 inches on the line. The energy spent on lifting is therefore only one-third as great on the line.

The line makes possible an even greater saving of effort after the worker has finished the sewing operation. Under the bundle system she must lower the finished work a distance of 18 inches, while on the line the finished work is simply given a push to reach the next operator. Considering both lifting and lowering combined, under the line system the operator's effort is reduced to about one-sixth of that required on the bundle system.

There is also an important saving of energy in bringing bundles to the workplace. In a shirt factory a bundle may weigh approximately 50 pounds and each operator may be expected to complete about 20 bundles per day. Assuming that work is stored 10 feet from the operator, this means that 1,000 pounds of material must be carried 10 feet to the operator under either the bundle or the line system. Under the line system the bundles are delivered to the first operator only, and the individual parts which make up the bundle progress from operator to operator until the bundle is reassembled and taken away from the end of the line. Under the bundle system the bundles are delivered to and taken away from each operator.[4]

3. *Other labor savings on the line.*—A garment consists of symmetrical right and left parts. Under the bundle system the garments are cut by laying successive layers of cloth face to face so that the right and left parts alternate. As a result, when the bundle is given to an operator she is compelled to work alternately on right and left parts and must make a "mental somersault," to quote the originator

[3] The weight of a dozen trousers is about 20 pounds. Assuming an output of 100 dozen per day, this represents a total weight of 2,000 pounds or 1 ton which has to be alternately lifted and lowered for each of the 20 operations. On the bundle system the distance is 18 inches up and down, or 3 feet, which makes it equivalent to 2,000×3×20=120,000 foot-pounds of work per day. Under the straight-line arrangement the distance to be lifted is only 6 inches and the lowering is entirely eliminated. This results in a saving of 40,000 foot-pounds of lifting and 60,000 foot-pounds of lowering, or a total of 100,000 foot-pounds of work per day.

[4] Taking as an illustration a shirt factory in which only 10 operations are on the line, turning out 100 dozen garments per day, 5 dozen in a bundle or a total of 20 bundles per day, and an average weight of 50 pounds per bundle, the following interesting comparison of the work of handling under the two systems is obtained:

Under the bundle system, each bundle will have to be handled twice for each operation. With the average distance between the operator and the work assumed to be 10 feet, this will make 20 feet for each bundle (bringing the bundle and taking it away). Since there are 10 operations, the total distance each bundle is carried will be 10×20=200 feet. For 20 bundles the distance will be 200×20=4,000 feet. With a 50-pound average weight of the bundle, the total weight handled will be 4,000×50=200,000 foot-pounds per day. Under the straight-line system there will be only 1 handling per bundle as against 10 under the bundle system. Therefore, the total foot-tons handled will be one-tenth of 200,000 foot-pounds or 20,000 foot-pounds, a saving of 180,000 foot-pounds or 90 foot-tons per day.

of the straight-line system, in placing the parts of the garment under the needle and handling them alternately in reverse positions.

Under the straight-line system one group of operators handles all the right parts, while another group handles the left parts, the two parts being joined by a third group. Relieved of the necessity of making the "mental somersault" each time she changes parts, the operator develops greater speed with no greater effort. This is one of the important features of the stright-line system, constituting an essential claim in the patent.

### EFFECT OF LINE ON EFFICIENCY OF MANAGEMENT

The most important achievement of the straight-line system is the stimulating effect it has on management. Since every shortcoming is apt to cause a break-down in the line, management has to be particularly alert to avoid interruptions in production. For example a careless notching of a part of a garment in the cutting room [5] would, under the bundle system, cause some difficulty to the worker on the operation for which the notching is done. The worker affected may or may not complain, depending on whether she is sufficiently aggressive to do so, and if she does complain, she may or may not always get the prompt attention of the responsible foreman. However, on the line the absence of the necessary notch, causing the operator to take more time in sewing part to part, will slow down production on the particular operation and in turn will halt the rest of the line and compel the instant attention of the management. Not only will the defect be immediately remedied, but the management will see to it that it does not happen again, because every interruption in production is costly. The fact that labor on the line is usually paid by the hour, instead of by the piece, makes idle time caused by work interruption all the more costly.

Similarly, if a machine breaks down under the bundle system it may cause a temporary stoppage of work on the part of the one operator affected. A well-run establishment, in order to reduce overhead cost, will give immediate attention to the machine, but in practice such a break-down does not always receive immediate attention. Under the line system, the break-down of a single machine will halt the work of the entire line, forcing immediate attention. Management is, therefore, obliged to take the necessary steps to prevent such break-downs and to make necessary repairs in the shortest possible time, through maintaining its machinery in first-class condition, having a reserve of machine heads and spare parts, and having in attendance a competent machinist capable of repairing the damage in the quickest possible time. In the end, it means elimination or reduction of nonproductive time and consequent increase in production.

[5] The parts are notched or marked by the cutter where the sewing is to begin and where to end in order to make a perfect fit of the parts.

In general, the straight-line system directs management's attention to the necessity of securing the utmost coordination of every department—the buying and timely delivery of materials and supplies; the dovetailing of the work of the cutting room with that of the sewing department; the timing of the parts shop with the body and assembly divisions; the balancing of the individual operations on the line; the maintenance of equipment in such condition that it may be available for any task it is called upon to perform; the training of the workers on additional operations to prevent interruption in production through absences of individual operators. Every one of these activities and many more must be looked after, if the line is to function, not only at its best, but to function at all.

Another outstanding feature of the straight-line system is that it greatly reduces inventory or work in process. As already stated, there is no necessity to wait for the completion of the bundle by one operator before it is turned over to another operator for the next operation. Instead, each individual part travels from operator to operator as fast as each completes her part.

The saving of time effected by the turn-over may be illustrated as follows: Assuming 4 dozen or 48 garments in a bundle and 20 operations to complete each garment, and assuming it takes 1 minute to do each operation, it would take 48 minutes to do each operation on a complete bundle, or a total of 960 minutes to complete the 20 operations on the entire bundle.

Under the straight-line system, as soon as the first operation has been completed by operator No. 1 and the garment or part placed on the rack or in the chute leading to the next operator, it becomes available to operator No. 2; a minute later it is ready for operator No. 3, and so on. The first garment or part, therefore, will be completely finished at the end of 20 minutes. During the progress of the work only one bundle has to be in operation to keep the 20 operators busy, whereas under the bundle system it would be necessary to have 20 bundles in process of work.

Assuming no loss of time between the operations, it will take 20 minutes for the first garment to go through the entire set of operations. Each succeeding minute will see a new garment completed. Thus, it will take 20 plus 47, or 67, minutes for the entire bundle of 48 garments to pass through all the operations, as against 960 minutes under the bundle system.

The reduction of time is equivalent to saving of inventory. Between the time the last or forty-eighth garment of the first bundle leaves operator No. 1 and the time it is completed 20 minutes later by the last operator, 20 more garments of a new bundle will have been done by operator No. 1 and will be in process at all subsequent stages. The ratio of work in process between the line and bundle systems will

therefore be 960 to 68, or practically 14 to 1. In other words, under the straight-line system only about one-fourteenth of the inventory or work in process is required as compared with the quantity of work that has to be kept in process under the bundle system. This does not take into account the time lost between operations while the bundles rest in the bundle rack in readiness for the operators, nor the saving of time due to the shorter path described in the chart on page 1304 and the saving of time due to the elimination of tying, untying, and transferring of bundles. This results in the release of many thousands of dollars of capital which had previously been needlessly tied up in inventory.

Another advantage to management of the line system is the prompt filling of the retailer's orders. While an order from a retailer may take weeks on the bundle system, this can be reduced to days on the line.

### LIMITATIONS OF THE STRAIGHT-LINE SYSTEM

1. *Rigidity.*—As already pointed out, the straight-line system calls for a very close balance of work between operations. This necessitates a definite arrangement of machinery in the order of the sequence of the operations, and the assignment of the exact number of machines to each operation necessary to insure a close balance of the work in process. There is thus imparted a certain rigidity to the straight-line system which makes it difficult, if not impossible, to use it for more than one product. A plant manufacturing a variety of products calling for different divisions of labor and for a different length of time for individual operations, cannot use the same line for more than one product. An arrangement of machines for different operations, once made, must be left undisturbed as long as the product for which it has been made continues to be manufactured. This difficulty can be overcome by having a separate line for each product. Insofar as the same variety of products is manufactured from month to month and season to season, such an arrangement is entirely feasible; but if frequent changes in the character of the products manufactured take place, the use of the line becomes impractical. In the case of such cotton-garment products as work clothing, this objection does not apply, since changes in style are not frequent. In a product like cotton dresses, where style is a factor, the difficulty would be more serious.[6]

2. *Vulnerability.*—Because of the close balance between operations, the absence of a single worker through illness or other cause is a much more serious matter under the line system than it is under the old-time bundle system. To avoid break-downs through this cause, there must

[6] To meet these difficulties, the originator of the system recommends the equipping of each sewing machine with a separate motor, so as to make it independent of any shafting. Another improvement is to make the machines rest on vacuum cups, which help to secure the machine fast to the floor and at the same time make it easy to move the machines to new positions when necessary.

always be a reserve of workers capable of stepping into the breach and taking the place of absentees. Such workers must be skillful and capable of doing any operation at the established rate of speed. Even if one operator leaves her machine for a few moments, it will cause the stoppage of the entire line unless there happens to be a reserve of work between the operations. No operator is, therefore, allowed to leave the line without a relief worker taking her place.

Frequently, to avoid additional expense, the forewoman on the line acts as relief worker. She can do that, however, only for brief intervals. She cannot replace a worker who is absent for an entire day. In other plants, the service or repair worker acts as relief operator.

A more general method of eliminating the expense of maintaining a reserve of relief workers is the use of workers in the parts shop, off the line, as a reserve. Both for this reason and because the making of parts (such as pocket patches, flaps, collars, cuffs, etc.) does not fit in with the progression of the work and frequently can be done more advantageously outside the line than on the line, the parts are usually made off the line under the bundle system, and are fed into the line at the points where they have to be joined to the main body of the garment.

3. *Lack of perfect balance.*—While the straight-line system aims at and achieves a closer balance of work between operations than is possible under the bundle system, it is next to impossible to attain a complete balance, for the reason that it is seldom possible to adjust the number of workers on each operation to the exact ratio of time taken per operation. If a given operation requires the time of one worker and the next operation requires, say, 1.9 as much time, the only thing that can be done is to put two workers on the next operation. In that case, the workers on operation No. 2 will be idle approximately 5 percent of their time. Similar disproportions to a greater or lesser degree may occur on other operations. This introduces an element of loss of time which is not present in the old bundle system, where each operator works fairly independently of the rest. On the other hand, it provides odd moments of relaxation at frequent intervals which help to relieve the physical and nervous strain of continuous hard work on the line.

4. *Straight line less suitable for garments of high quality.*—There is a difference of opinion among manufacturers of quality garments as to the adaptability of the straight-line system to the handling of high-grade work. High-quality work calls for careful inspection at various stages of the manufacture of the garment. When the quality foreman inspects a bundle of work and finds it defective, he returns it to the operator to remove the imperfections. This may require the ripping of the seam and doing the work over. The operator takes the necessary time to do it.

Such a procedure, if attempted on the line, would disrupt the continuity of the work on the line and is manifestly impossible. As the work progresses rapidly in single units from operator to operator, it is impossible to examine at any point a quantity of garments coming from one particular operator. The examination of the completed garments will help to eliminate a faulty garment, which will be sold as a "second", but in most cases it is too late at that stage for the operator who did the faulty work to correct it without undoing the work of several other operators, at great expense to the firm.

Nevertheless a number of concerns making a high quality of shirts and pants were found operating under the line system. In a plant manufacturing shirts of a very high grade there are several inspection points. Garments found to be defective are not returned to the operator for repair, since that would stop the line, but are given to a service or repair operator to fix. The operator responsible for the poor work is admonished to do better and her work is watched until she either improves the quality of her work or gives way to a better worker.

### *The Progressive Bundle System*

The straight-line system owes its origin to certain inherent weaknesses in the old production system which generally prevails in the cotton-garment industry. It is therefore but natural that other people besides the originator of the straight-line system should have given thought to the same problems and developed improvements both before and after the appearance of the line system.

One of these improvements is known as the progressive bundle system, which is a modification of the straight-line system. It follows the same principle of work progression through the shop, except that the work moves in bundles instead of in single garments or parts. Although the idea of arranging the machines in the sequence of operations, to reduce the crisscrossing and repeated shunting of the bundles from one end of the shop to the other, found practical application in various parts of the country before the line system made its appearance, the development of the progressive bundle system received a new impetus from the introduction of the line system, from which it has borrowed many ideas.

The elimination of the handling of work bundles by the foreman or his assistants is the same under the progressive bundle system as under the straight-line system. The differences between the two systems are:

(1) The progressive bundle system does not eliminate the handling of the bundle by the worker;

(2) It lacks the power of stimulation which the straight-line system exerts upon the individual worker;

(3) It lacks the stimulating effect upon management which the straight line exerts.

The powerful influence which the straight-line system exerts upon management springs from the use of the single garment as a unit of production and the paralyzing effect it produces upon production in the shop if any major or minor detail goes wrong. Management is forced to be constantly on its toes and to do its utmost to prevent interruptions in production.

This compelling power is no more inherent in the progressive bundle system than under the ordinary bundle system. Under the progressive bundle system the bundle continues to serve as the unit, and the progressive system has all the weaknesses of the old-time bundle system, except that it relieves the shop management of the task of switching work from operation to operation. Nevertheless, the progressive bundle system does eliminate much handling and, if intelligently applied, is capable of producing substantial results.

## *Effect of Line on Productivity of Labor*

To what extent does the straight-line system increase labor productivity? Studies which have been made indicate that the effect of the line on labor productivity depends upon many factors. In order to obtain the maximum benefits, the system calls for the use of the best machines, close coordination of the work in the different departments, careful balancing of work on different operations in the sewing room, the arrangement of equipment to eliminate waste motion, both vertical and horizontal, the elimination of unnecessary handling and lifting of materials in the process of work, etc.

A circular of one of the engineering firms licensed to install the straight-line system states that one garment company increased production 50 percent, cut manufacturing costs 25 percent, reduced clerical work 33⅓ percent, and inspection costs 60 percent, saved 25 percent of the floor space, and vastly reduced inventory of goods in process. The circular does not state how efficient or inefficient the plant was before the introduction of the line. The percentages cited above depend not only on the results achieved but also on what the condition was prior to the installation of the new system.

An attempt to evaluate the effects of the straight-line system, in connection with the present study, has met with the usual difficulty of lack of sufficient records to make possible the allocation of gains to the various causes responsible for them. In almost all plants, the introduction of the straight-line system was accompanied by the installation of some new sewing machines. The effects of the new machines on increased labor productivity must therefore be taken into consideration in analyzing the productivity gains of the line.

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One of the dress-shirt plants studied showed an increase in man-hour output in the sewing department of 28.8 percent. This represents the increase in productivity of the sewing department as a whole, covering both the production on the line and the production of parts not affected by the line system. The gain in production on the line was manifestly greater. In another plant, while the increase in productivity of the sewing department was less than 15 percent, the increase for the assembly operations alone, which are the only operations on the line in that plant, was much greater. The saving in time on assembly operations was as follows: Before the introduction of the line, the total time required to do the assembly operations on a dozen garments was 1.20 man-hours. When 20 percent of the assembly department of the shop was put on the line, the time per dozen garments was reduced to 1.07 man-hours. When, later, the entire assembly department was put on the line, the time went down to 0.79 man-hour. This is a reduction of 34.2 percent from the time required under the bundle system.

As shown in the chart (p. 1313), after all the assembly operations had been put on the line, the remaining bundle operations took more time than they did before the introduction of the line. This was due to the fact that the best and fastest operators had been transferred to the line, leaving the slower operators to make the parts on the bundle system.

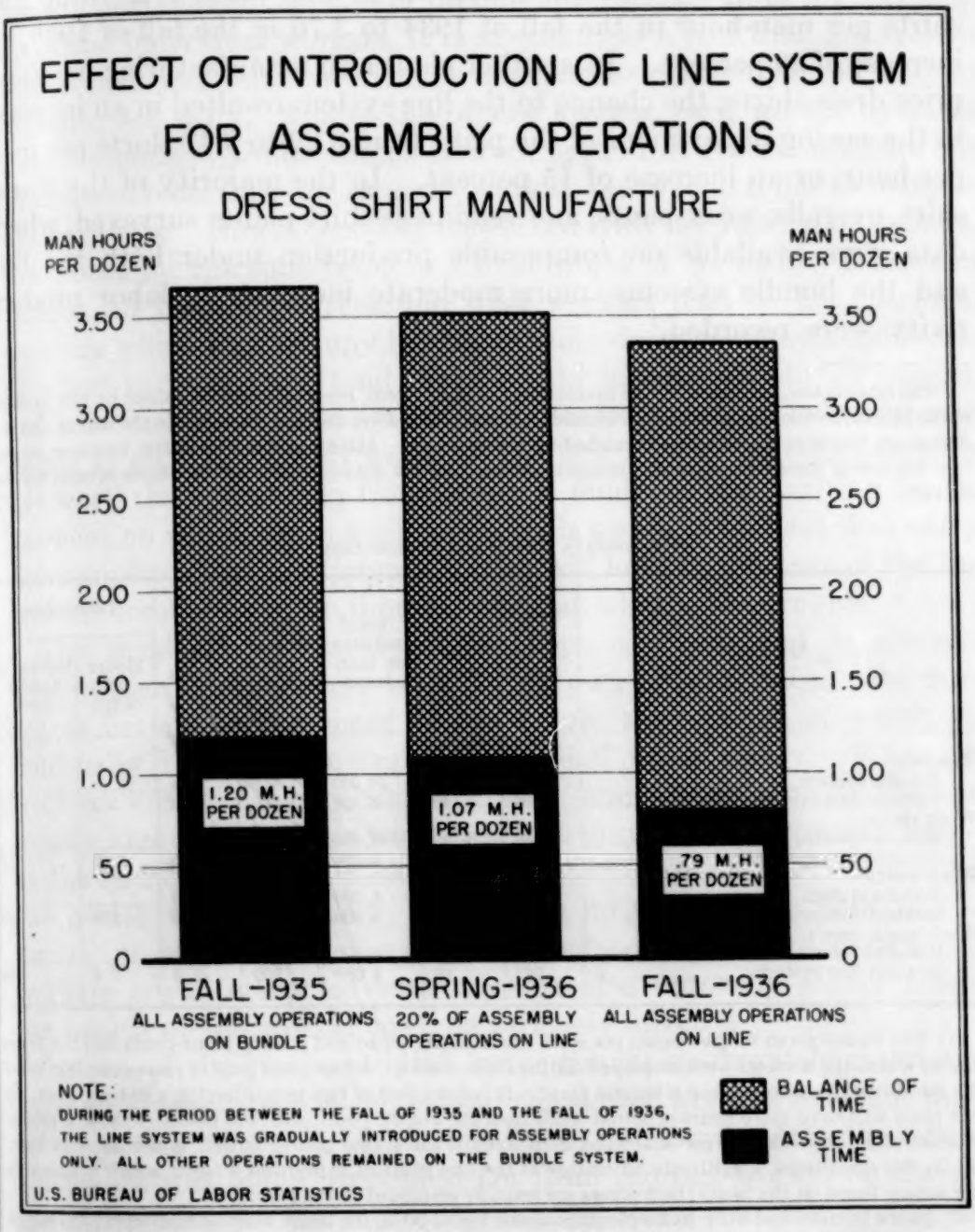
This is one of the rare instances where it is possible to isolate the effect of a single factor. In spite of the longer time it took to do the parts, after the introduction of the line, the height of the third column is still lower than that of the first, the difference between the two representing the net saving produced by the introduction of the line.

As already indicated, not all the work in straight-line shops is done on the line. Some of it can be done more advantageously outside the line. Nor is there a uniform rule as to the proportion of work to be done on the line. In the most successful plants, about two-thirds of the sewing operations, requiring about 80 percent of the total time on all operations in the sewing department, are usually done on the line, the rest being done in bundles off the line.

Although the trend is toward more plants installing the line system, and expanding lines in plants which are already using the system, some firms have tried and abandoned the line system. Two firms reported that the variety of styles made the line unsuitable. Two other firms, both nonunion, experienced opposition from the workers to the alleged driving regimentation of the line.

Another aspect of the line system is that in a number of plants which have continued to operate with part of their factory on the line and part under the bundle system, the bundle department has often recorded a decline in productivity. This may be due partly to the fact that some of the more simple and standardized garments had been removed from the bundle department and allotted to the line.

From records available in the average cotton-garment plant, it is next to impossible to isolate the effect of any single factor on the man-hour output of the plant. The individual skill of the operator, the speed and condition of the machine, the system of shop management,




light and ventilation in the shop, and many other elements have a direct bearing on the productivity of the operator in the sewing room, and there is no system of records which would even attempt to account for the influence of any of these factors. This must be constantly borne in mind in attempting to trace or to evaluate the effects of any single factor, such as the system of shop management.

Nevertheless, an examination of the figures of individual plants shows that the introduction of the line system produces a definite increase in the man-hour output of the plant. One factory producing medium-grade dress shirts introduced the line system early in 1935. The output of the sewing department of this plant rose from 2.92 shirts per man-hour in the fall of 1934 to 3.76 in the fall of 1936, an increase of 29 percent. In another plant also manufacturing medium-price dress shirts, the change to the line system resulted in an increase in the sewing department of the plant from 3.29 to 3.77 shirts per man per hour, or an increase of 15 percent. In the majority of the work-shirt, overalls, work-pants, and semidress-shirt plants surveyed, where data were available on comparable production under both the line and the bundle systems, more moderate increases in labor productivity were recorded.[7]

[7] The table below, furnished by the inventor of the line system, presents results obtained by him in some of the plants in which he installed the system. These plants have not been included in the survey and the figures are therefore presented as furnished by the inventor. Attention must be called, however, to certain features of these figures which distinguish them from the data gathered for the plants covered by the survey.

*Productivity in Bundle and Straight-Line Plants*

| Article | Total machines operated | Hours per week | Total machine- or man-hours | Total dozens produced | Hours per dozen | Time saved | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | | | | Hours per dozen | Percent of bundle time |
| Trousers: | | | | | | | |
| Bundle system | 210 | 52 | 10,920 | 1,300 | 8.4 | | |
| Straight-line system | 208 | 40 | 8,320 | 1,600 | 5.2 | 3.2 | 38 |
| Work shirts: | | | | | | | |
| Bundle system | 67 | 40 | 2,680 | 1,650 | 2.6 | | |
| Straight-line system | 65 | 40 | 2,600 | 1,100 | 2.4 | .2 | 7 |
| Work pants: | | | | | | | |
| Bundle system | 100 | 52 | 5,200 | 750 | 6.9 | | |
| Straight-line system | 80 | 40 | 3,200 | 800 | 4.0 | 2.9 | 42 |
| Wash coats, men's: | | | | | | | |
| Bundle system | 117 | 40 | 4,680 | 223 | 21.0 | | |
| Straight-line system | 102 | 40 | 4,080 | 300 | 13.6 | 7.4 | 35 |

(1) The figures given in the "hours per week" column are scheduled weekly plant-hours and not hours during which the workers were employed during those weeks. A line plant makes more complete use of the scheduled plant-hours than a bundle plant. It follows that of two plants having a 40-hour week, the line plant will have more hours of actual work than the bundle plant, and will therefore show a greater productivity per week and per scheduled hour even if the actual hourly output is the same in both. While this constitutes a legitimate advantage of the line plant, it introduces a factor which is absent in the survey based on the hours the workers are actually employed in the plant.

(2) In the trousers and work-pants plants recorded in the table, the hours were reduced from 52 to 40. A reduction of 12 hours a week or 2 hours per day is likely to result in a considerable increase in labor productivity because of the elimination of fatigue. At least, this is the common experience in industry. It is thus probably responsible for a part of the fact that the highest increases in productivity in the table, viz, 42 and 38 percent, took place in plants which reduced weekly work hours from 52 to 40.

(3) The next highest increase in man-hour output on the line is for wash coats. The figures happen to cover a season when wash coats were much in vogue. The concerns manufacturing them popularized lower-price products and had the advantage of a large volume of production, which is always conducive to high labor productivity. The 35 percent increase in productivity in this case may, therefore, be due in part to this factor. While it is impossible to determine accurately the effects of the incidental factors just enumerated, it is probable that a substantial part of the increase is due to the straight-line system.

## *Effects of Line on Workers*

### CHANGE FROM INDIVIDUAL TO TEAM WORK

Although the originator of the straight-line system attaches the least importance to increase of production resulting from the speeding up of the individual workers, it is nevertheless a fact that the system forces each individual worker on the line to concentrate on and to expedite her work. Under the bundle system, each worker operates independently. Under the piece-work system in general use, she has the incentive to turn out as much work as possible in order to increase her earnings. However, being concerned with her individual bundle, she works for the time being in a little world of her own. A sense of fatigue, ill health, conversation with workers next to her, personal troubles which may occupy her mind while she goes on with her work, all affect her speed and tend to reduce the incentive to do her utmost.

Under the straight-line system the operator loses such independence. She is at all times keenly aware of the fact that if she falls behind in her work the operator in front of her is rendered idle, waiting for the garment on which she is working. She is aware of the fact that unless she completes her part promptly, this will hold up the rest of the line and the foreman will be there to find out what is the trouble.

The necessity of speed under these circumstances is obvious. The worker can no longer work at her own natural pace. She must adjust herself to the speed of her fellow workers, all of which undoubtedly results in increased individual productivity. When the workers are of a fairly uniform skill and equal tempo, the uniformly high speed of the work, while it may result in greater fatigue at the end of the work period, need not necessarily affect injuriously the health of the worker. But where no attention is paid to that factor, or still worse where, as a result of deliberate design, fast workers are interspersed with workers of a naturally slower tempo, the health of the worker may be seriously affected.[8]

In one of the plants studied, management deliberately resorted to such an arrangement which caused the slower workers to strain themselves to the utmost. On the one hand, the slower worker was aware that work was piling up behind her from the fast worker on the preceding operation. On the other hand, she saw that the equally fast worker on the succeeding operation was waiting for her work. The result was a large increase in productivity by the individual workers, but at the cost of great physical and nervous strain on the part of the naturally slower workers. In the end, such an arrangement is bound to be harmful not only to the slower worker but to the efficient operation of the shop.

[8] In fairness to the originator of the system, it should be said that he is opposed to its abuse. He has publicly and emphatically stated that he is not interested in having it used "by those who would engage in its unsocial exploitation."

A plant managed in disregard of these elements will have a high labor turn-over, with inevitable loss of production while the new help is being trained or is trying to adjust itself to the work in the shop. Moreover, while the fast worker speeds up the slower, she is in turn slowed down by the latter. Since a slow worker cannot keep up an unnaturally fast pace indefinitely, it means that on the average the gain in production caused by the speeding up of the slow worker will be offset by the loss of production on the part of the fast worker through the failure of the slow worker to keep up with her pace.

### REST PERIODS

The necessity of working at her machine without let-up, under the conditions just described, creates a physical and nervous strain which must be relieved from time to time by rest periods. Under the bundle system, especially with piece work as the prevailing basis of compensation, a worker is free to stop at any moment to relax or to attend to her personal needs. In shops in which a central work station is provided, she must in addition leave her place each time the bundle is finished, take it to the station, wait until she gets the next bundle, and then walk back to her place. As the bundle is usually of a size to provide approximately an hour's work, she has an opportunity to make several trips to the work station in the course of the day. This provides a number of brief rest periods, at approximately equal intervals, which relieve the monotony and strain.

In shops working on the line system, there are usually two rest periods of 5 to 10 minutes each in addition to the lunch period—one in the middle of the forenoon and another in the middle of the afternoon. The time devoted to the rest periods is approximately equal to the time taken by the worker under the bundle system, except that under the line system the rest is taken by all the workers together at definite periods of the day, whereas under the bundle system each worker follows her own inclination as to the time and length of relaxation.

### EARNINGS OF SEWING-MACHINE OPERATORS

The effects of the straight-line system on earnings of sewing-machine operators have been influenced by a variety of cross-currents that have been operating in the industry since N. R. A. Most plants installed the line system after the termination of N. R. A. when average hourly earnings were reduced in proportion to the increases in work hours. Differences in record keeping of hours under N. R. A. and after, are also apt to distort the wage picture. While the weekly earnings are an exact figure based on pay-roll records, the computed hourly wages in piece-rate plants frequently vary with changing time-clock regulations or failure of their enforcement. These limitations

must be taken into consideration in analyzing the changes in the average hourly earnings since N. R. A., which are presented in table 2. The fall of 1936 is compared with the fall of 1934 because the entire cotton-garment industry was then operating on a uniform 40-hour week. Although the trend in average hourly earnings (computed by dividing the weekly earnings by the number of hours registered on the factory time clock) has been generally downward, the line plants, with the exception of the average for the two union plants in the North, recorded smaller declines than bundle plants.

TABLE 2.—*Changes in Average Hourly Earnings in the Cotton-Garment Industry Since N. R. A.*

| Type of plant | Location | Number of plants | Percentage change, fall of 1936 compared with fall of 1934 |
|---|---|---|---|
| Bundle plants, nonunion | North | 20 | −4.9 |
| Line plants, nonunion | do | 7 | −2.6 |
| Bundle plants, union | do | 25 | −2.8 |
| Line plants, union | do | 2 | −7.2 |
| Bundle plants, nonunion | South | 16 | −16.6 |
| Line plants, nonunion | do | 4 | −8.9 |

During the same period weekly earnings of sewing-machine operators in 35 bundle plants changed slightly, decreasing 1.6 percent. On the other hand, the records of 13 plants which installed the line system and retained the 40-hour week show an increase in the weekly earnings of sewing-machine operators to have been approximately 10 percent.[9]

The effect of the line system on hourly and weekly earnings of sewing-machine operators may also be studied by comparing line and bundle plants for the fall of 1936. A comparison of hourly earnings of sewing-machine operators in nonunion plants comprising 11 line plants in the North and 12 in the South and 29 bundle plants in the North and 20 in the South shows that in both the North and the South average hourly earnings were slightly higher in line than in bundle plants. The average hourly earnings of sewing-machine operators in these nonunion plants under the line and the bundle system in the fall of 1936 were as follows:

| | *Number of plants* | *Average hourly earnings (cents)* |
|---|---|---|
| Line plants: | | |
| North | 11 | 36.2 |
| South | 12 | 28.6 |
| Bundle plants: | | |
| North | 29 | 35.2 |
| South | 20 | 27.2 |

[9] Data on the actual weekly earnings are included in the bulletin on Labor Productivity in the Cotton-Garment Industry to be published.

In analyzing weekly earnings care has been taken to select comparable nonunion plants under the bundle and line systems working on uniform weekly schedules. Twenty-two bundle plants and six line plants were found working on a 40-hour week. Both groups of plants manufacture various products, such as dress shirts, work shirts, etc. One-half of the 22 bundle plants and one-half of the 6 line plants are located in the South, so that the effects of the regional differences in wages were eliminated. Of these 28 plants the average weekly earnings of sewing-machine operators on the line were slightly more than $1 higher than for those under the bundle system.

### EFFECTS OF LINE ON WAGE SYSTEM

Under the bundle system workers are paid on a piece basis, the rate varying with the operation performed. Under the straight-line system, all workers on a line produce an equal number of garments, and all workers engaged on the same operation earn about an equal amount. This eliminates the need for the piece-work system and the workers are therefore paid, as a rule, on an hourly basis.

The hourly wage is generally determined by taking into consideration the weekly earnings of the workers and their output under the bundle system, when they were paid by the piece. As a rule, with the hourly wage goes a quota of minimum output on the line, which is usually based on time studies. If the total production for the week exceeds the quota the workers receive a bonus in addition to their regular hourly wage. This method of paying machine operators on the line has been found in operation in all nonunion plants. Of the two union line plants covered by the survey, one operates under the same system, while the other continues to pay by the piece as it did under the bundle system.

### EXPERIMENT IN A UNION SHOP

The rapid progress of the system among nonunion manufacturers, with the consequent increased competition with which the union manufacturers were confronted, has led to a serious effort on the part of union manufacturers to bring about an arrangement which would remove the opposition of the union to the introduction of the system in union shops. As a result of negotiations between the Union Made Garment Manufacturers Association and the United Garment Workers Union, it was agreed to undertake an experiment by adopting the system in a union plant under the joint supervision of the manufacturers and the union. Accordingly, the system was introduced in a small shop operated by a leading union manufacturer early in March 1937. A visit to the plant when it was completing its fourth week of

operation under the system produced the following information: The workers in the shop were working under a quota system. The weekly quota was equal to the former production of the shop under the bundle system. The quota was exceeded after the first week of operation. During the fourth week production was nearly 10 percent in excess of the quota, yielding a bonus of 84 cents per week to each worker on the line. As the shop was just getting into its stride, both management and workers were looking forward to increased production and earnings.

During the month of April production exceeded the quota by 40 percent. A substantial part of this gain was due to: (1) Production of fewer styles under the line system as compared with the old bundle system; (2) installation of new machinery; (3) remodeling the plant by painting the walls white and improving ventilation, lighting, and heating equipment. However, management attributes the major part of the gain in productivity to the advantages of the line.

The 40-percent gain in weekly production was accompanied by an increase of 20 percent in weekly pay rolls, and a gain of 15 percent in the weekly earnings of sewing-machine operators.[10]

The method of adjusting the wages in this union shop aims at an equal division between management and labor of the benefits resulting from the system. Prior to the introduction of the straight line, the hourly rates for each worker had been agreed upon. These rates were fixed at the workers' previous earnings under the piece-work system. A weekly production quota under the new system was arrived at by adding the sum total of the wages thus agreed upon for a 40-hour week and dividing it by the former piece price per dozen.

Under the bundle system the sum total of piece rates per dozen was $1.775. It was agreed that on all production on the line in excess of the weekly quota, the workers of the shop were to get a bonus of 88.5 cents per dozen (3.8 cents per dozen for each operator) or one-half of the old piece rate. Under this arrangement the firm thus gets the benefit of reduced cost on all work done in excess of the production under the bundle system and the workers get the benefit of an equal gain in their earnings above the figure which they earned under the old system.

The experiment is being closely watched by the other union-label houses in the industry. If it comes to be generally adopted by the union manufacturers, it promises to remove the opposition of organized labor in the work-clothing industry to this latest phase of technological progress in the cotton-garment industry.

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[10] The difference in the last two figures is due to the fact that three employees formerly engaged in indirect labor when the plant was under the bundle system were transferred to productive work on the line.

## *Summary*

Briefly, the results of the straight-line system may be summed up as follows:

1. Even after taking into account the increased productivity under the line system resulting from installation of new machinery and from the production of a more simplified garment, there is a net residual gain in output per man-hour attributable strictly to the line.

Although an insufficient number of plants surveyed preserved records and manufactured comparable products prior to and after the installation of the line system to permit an exact comparison, the gain of 20 percent in man-hour output under the line system which is estimated by manufacturers, appears to be substantiated.

The effect of the rise in labor productivity upon the weekly earnings of sewing-machine operators could not be accurately measured. Such data as are available, however, justify the conclusion that weekly earnings rose by about 10 percent.[11]

2. The savings in cost to the manufacturer brought about by the line system are composed of two principal elements: (1) The reduction of work in progress, resulting in a very substantial decrease in inventory investment, and (2) savings in direct labor cost because of the higher productivity of labor on the line.

[11] Data on the actual weekly earnings are included in the bulletin on Labor Productivity in the Cotton-Garment Industry to be published.

# CLAIMS ADMINISTRATION IN WORKMEN'S COMPENSATION [1]

By MARSHALL DAWSON, *Bureau of Labor Statistics*

IN ESTABLISHING the workmen's compensation system one of the main purposes was to provide a prompt, simple, convenient, and inexpensive method of settling the claims of injured workers. This purpose has not been completely realized in the States, although the system, especially where administrative agencies have been created, has demonstrated its superiority over common-law and statutory "liability" remedies in the courts.

In examining the details of workmen's compensation administration, the needs and purposes the system was designed to meet should be kept in mind at every point. Injured workers require not only support during their period of incapacity but also specialized service for restoring them to health and working opportunity. Twenty-five or more years ago, it was apparent that such needs could be efficiently met only through an administrative agency. In practice, the routine of such agencies is to be judged by the degree to which it fits the condition and needs of injured workers.

Existing measurements of the kind of claims-settlement service now rendered by the State agencies show that there has been little change in performance since the survey made by the Bureau of Labor Statistics in 1919–20. The situation could hardly have improved in many jurisdictions under the prevailing circumstances as to legislation, support, staffing, and personnel policies. Especially during the years 1930–35 there was a marked increase in the number of controverted cases, which necessarily caused a widening lag in the payment of compensation.[2]

In the States the main methods of settling workmen's compensation claims are: By direct settlement, as in Wisconsin; by the agreement system, as in Pennsylvania; and by the hearing system, as in New York. In seven jurisdictions (including Alaska) court procedure remains, as a survival of earlier practice. In Canada, the Provinces have adopted what may be called the Ontario plan. Before describing these systems in detail a brief explanation is given of fundamental differences between the Canadian and the State systems of procedure.

[1] One of a series of articles based upon a study by the Bureau of Labor Statistics. Earlier articles were given in the January and February 1936 issues of the Monthly Labor Review.

[2] Illustrative of the situation in many jurisdictions are the following figures, from a table in the report of the Idaho Industrial Accident Board, 1932–34, which show the average number of days between date of disability and date of first payment of compensation:

| | *Average interval (days)* | | *Average interval (days)* |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1928 | 35.32 | 1932 | 46.12 |
| 1929 | 37.97 | 1933 | 46.30 |
| 1930 | 41.41 | 1934 | 42.31 |
| 1931 | 43.84 | | |

In the legislative plan for setting up a compensation agency the crucial question is whether or not to give the administration final authority. The answer to this question affects profoundly the routine of claim settlement. The administration that is given final authority has a free hand in simplifying its procedure, but if decisions are subject to court review it is necessary to develop a system that in appealed cases will furnish the courts an acceptable basis for the administrative decisions. The State systems are complicated by a statutory provision for appeals to the courts. The Ontario Workmen's Compensation Act gave the compensation board final authority. The Ontario plan proved satisfactory and was adopted in all the other Provinces having workmen's compensation acts, except that in New Brunswick and Nova Scotia there is a very limited appeal on questions of law.

Since giving final authority to a compensation agency is the most far-reaching step affecting procedure that has been taken in compensation legislation, it is well to examine the considerations which led to the adoption of the plan in Ontario.

## *Background of Ontario Act*

The Ontario act was drafted by Sir William Ralph Meredith, Chief Justice of Ontario, after an exhaustive study of workmen's compensation systems in Europe and America. His guiding principle was "to get rid of the nuisance of litigation" and "to have swift justice meted out to the great body of men" even though some mistakes might be made. He was shocked by some of the English cases in which workmen had failed to recover, though, as he said, the court decisions might from a legal point of view be technically sound. The worker, apparently, was at a disadvantage in litigating his claim in a court of law. Some mistakes are inevitable under any system of procedure, but the Chief Justice's study convinced him that the mistakes made by an expert administrative board with final authority would be fewer and less costly than those made by the courts. He therefore opposed any compromise giving the courts even the most limited control over the administrative process: "Half measures which mitigate but do not remove injustice are, in my judgment, to be avoided." [3]

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[3] The discussion of such points is found in the Final Report made by Sir William Ralph Meredith, vol. II, pp. 510, 512 (1913), which is one of the most valuable documents in compensation literature. The crux of the debate is in the lines quoted:

Mr. WEGENAST. I would suggest that there might be an enumeration of what might be classed questions of fact (as a basis for appeal to the courts).
Mr. MEREDITH. I would not complicate it that way.
Mr. WEGENAST. You have to shut off appeal entirely?
Mr. MEREDITH. Certainly.
Mr. BANCROFT. (P. 510). Then of course the constitution of the board becomes of great importance.
Mr. MEREDITH. Of course everything depends on the constitution of the board; if it is a bad board the whole thing will be a failure.

Section 67 (1) of the Ontario Compensation Act, defining the jurisdiction of the board, gave the administrative agency final authority.

> The board shall have exclusive jurisdiction to examine into, hear and determine all matters and questions arising under this part and as to any matter or thing in respect to which any power, authority or discretion is conferred upon the board, and the action or decision of the board thereon shall be final and conclusive and shall not be open to question or review in any court and no proceedings by or before the board shall be restrained by injunction, prohibition, or other process or proceeding in any court or be removable by certiorari or otherwise into any court.

With complete emancipation from court interference or control over its decisions, the workmen's compensation authority was free to develop its own routine, and virtually has no problem in relation to procedure. In the light of experience, it adopts the most convenient, economical, and swift methods of finding out what the injured worker is entitled to and then mailing his compensation check. In all the Provinces the claims-settlement routine is much the same, subject to minor variations in forms and practice reflecting local peculiarities of geography, population, and industry.[4] The first important contrast to bear in mind, when examining methods of claims settlement in the United States and Canada, is, then, that the Provincial boards have complete control over their routine, while the State administrations do not.[5]

## *Contrast Between Procedure of States and Canadian Provinces*

### THE SITUATION IN THE STATES

Although there is a fairly uniform system of claims administration in Canada, adopted on its proved merits by all the Provinces having workmen's compensation acts, there is in the United States a variety of systems ranging from the court administration found in seven States (including Alaska) to the highly developed claims administration methods of Wisconsin set up under civil service or the "merit system." Between these two extremes there is the widest diversity of mechanism and practice. One compensation statute, the United States Employees' Compensation Act, closely resembles the Ontario plan in regard to freedom from court appeals.

In some States, because of the deficient staffing of the administration and inexperience resulting from rapid turn-over, the actual claims administration is in effect left in the hands of the private insurance

[4] For example, in Quebec the forms and reports are printed in two languages, English and French. Since lawyers are often appointed as compensation administrators, it was inevitable that for a time in one or two Provinces technicalities were overemphasized, and this led to personnel changes. But especially in Ontario and in British Columbia the routine, from the beginning of the administration, was informal, and the employment of lawyers by claimants was discouraged as an unnecessary expense.

[5] An explanation is given later of how the courts, through their right to review administrative decisions, can to some extent control the procedure of the compensation commissions.

carriers, with only nominal supervision from the State agency. In such States the claimant may actually get what the insurance adjuster decides to give him, unless he requests a hearing before the State agency. Under this situation, as indicated by State investigations, injured workers lose millions of dollars annually. In strong contrast to such methods, which sometimes approximate nonadministration by a State agency, New York installed what until recently was a virtually universal "hearing system" under which an effort was made to have every injured worker attend, in person, a hearing upon his possible claim. Such attendance on the whole, however, cost workers a vast loss of time and much money in lost wages.[6] The system was modified in April 1936 and the number of hearings curtailed.[7]

In some States the procedure is formal and technical like that in the courts; in other States it is relatively informal. In all the States except Nevada there is the right of court appeal, in some jurisdictions with a new trial before a jury if desired, while in others the appeal is restricted to questions of law. In Nevada the commission may be sued in the courts. Where there is a wide latitude for appeal both upon fact and law with a trial *de novo* in the courts, the hearing before the commission may become a mere perfunctory gesture as the first step toward a court trial. In this medley of methods the guiding principles of compensation practice, as distinguished from litigation, are often lost from sight.

### DIFFERENCE IN OBJECTIVES

A second major contrast between the simple pattern of claims administration in Ontario and that found in most of the States arises from a difference in the object of the administrations. On the one hand, the task of the Ontario claims administration is payment, while on the other hand the task of all the State administrations, except in exclusive-fund jurisdictions, is the supervision of payments to be made by an employer or insurance carrier.[8] To a certain extent, the claims administration of the compensation agency in all private insurance States duplicates the work of claims examination done by the insurance carriers. So far as the payment of compensation is concerned, the purpose of such supervision by the State agency is to make certain that injured workmen are paid, by employers or insurance carriers, what they are entitled to under the law. All the types of public supervision of claims administration, whether by a commissioner, a board or commission, or the courts, are expected to check upon the payments made by private agencies or by competitive State funds. Their administrative routine or procedure, however

[6] Bureau of Labor Statistics Bulletin No. 511, p. 303.

[7] New York. Industrial Commissioner. Report, 1936, p. 7.

[8] In exclusive-fund States and Provinces which permit self-insurance by employers, the claims administration of course has a supervisory function as to the self-insured or "own risk" employers.

different it may be in form, is for this primary purpose. And however it may be simplified it remains a partial duplication of work done by private agencies. The duplication is least in jurisdictions where there is virtual nonadministration by the State agency, and it is greatest in the jurisdictions where the work of the State agency in claims supervision is diligent, thorough, and comprehensive. With present methods this is the dilemma faced by compensation administration under the private insurance system; the closer the supervision the greater the duplication.

## *Principal Types of Claims Administration*

The main features of the several types of claims administration may be covered by a brief description.

### CLAIMS PROCEDURE IN ONTARIO

An account of the Ontario method of settling workmen's compensation claims was given in the Monthly Labor Review for January 1936, as follows:

The Ontario system has developed a brisk claims routine, in the hands of veteran employees who have been carefully trained for their special tasks.

Within three days after the occurrence of an industrial injury the employer must send a report to the workmen's compensation board. A short, simple "notice of accident" form is sent in by the employer in cases in which it is apparent that the disability will be less than 7 days, i. e., the "waiting period" during which indemnity is not paid but "medical aid" is furnished. In cases involving medical aid only no further report from the employer, and none from the employee, may be necessary. In the compensable cases a fuller report is made by the employer, with details about the employee's earnings. In such cases a report is also required from the workman and the physician.

When the employer's report of a compensable accident is received, a form letter is immediately sent to the workman, instructing him what to do. At the same time, he is sent a form to be filled out by himself, and another to be filled out by his attending physician. The physician usually mails in his report separately.

Whenever there is any appreciable lag in payment by the workmen's compensation board, it arises from the employee's neglect to send in his claim. Delay at this point is guarded against by a vigilant follow-up system. Tardiness in the handling of claims received by the board is minimized by a close check on the daily flow of work.

If the routine work preliminary to the payment of a "straight" claim is not completed within the working day, somebody must remain overtime. A summary of the flow of business is made each

day, and the percentage of claims that have not moved to their destination is so small as to be negligible.

It is estimated that between 80 and 90 percent of the claims received are "straight" cases. There is no question about them. Such claims pass automatically and immediately through the hands of the claims clerks and computing clerks, so that practically all of the first payments are placed in the mail within 2 days after the receipt of the necessary reports.[9]

The claims involving medical aid only are scrutinized by a "claims clerk"; the compensable cases, in which indemnity is paid, are passed upon by senior members of the personnel called "claims officers." Promptness is assured by a rule that "all compensable claims in which the investigation is completed must be ready for payment the day following the completion of the investigation."

The somewhat doubtful claims may be handled by a clerk or may be referred to the chief claims officer. Some of these may be referred to the workmen's compensation board for a ruling or decision.

Formerly, the award made by a claims officer came to the desk of the chairman for signature. But Mr. George Wilkie refused to sign decisions which he lacked time to study carefully, and placed final responsibility for an award on the claims officer who makes it. Such a procedure leaves the chairman with a fresh mind when a disputed award is brought to him for a decision; he is not then placed in the embarrassing position of having to reverse himself if he concludes that the original decision of the claims officer was wrong.

The thoroughness of the labor of the clerical staff, medical officers, and claims officers is attested by the very small number of cases which require field investigation. When more than 4½ million dollars are paid out in a year on compensation and medical aid, and the number of disputed cases calling for field investigation is so small that one man can handle them all—with only occasional aid in pinches—an extraordinary achievement in administration is apparent.

### PROCEDURAL METHODS IN THE STATES

In the private insurance States the main patterns of claims administration, nominal or actual, are known as the direct-settlement system, the agreement system, and the hearing system. In most jurisdictions the three methods are mixed, while in a few the hearing system coexists either with direct-settlement or the agreement system. Under the direct-settlement plan, employers or insurance carriers begin payment to the injured worker of their own initiative, subject to a supervisory check by the administering agency. The injured worker is not asked to sign any papers other than receipts for his money, nor does he

[9] Exact computations of promptness are not available.

have to agree to anything. He does not have to make any bargain whatever with the employer or insurance carrier; the law specifies what he is entitled to receive, and if he does not get it the supervisory agency is supposed to correct the discrepancy either by checking upon reports and receipts or through a conference or hearing, formal or informal, attended by the interested parties. Under the agreement system the employer or insurance carrier has the injured worker agree to a certain settlement. Thereupon payment is made to him, either immediately or after approval of the settlement by the State agency.

Under lax or inadequate supervision, gross abuses may arise in either of these informal systems of claims administration. Because of such abuses, shown to have existed in New York by the Connor investigation in 1919, a drastic change was made in the New York claims-administration routine and a public hearing was required in all cases of industrial injury. In successful operation, such a system would afford the most complete conceivable supervision of claims adjustments by private agencies or the competitive fund. In practice, it was never possible to get all the injured workers to whom notices of hearings were sent to attend the hearings, and many of those who did attend were bitterly disappointed to learn, after coming to the hearing room, that they would get no money at all or no more money than they had already been paid.

In between the supervisory procedure found in States where there is direct settlement or the agreement system with inadequate supervision, and the New York experiment with a universal hearing system, is the Wisconsin routine. In this State most of the claims are paid under the direct-settlement method, a limited number under "compromise settlements," and the remainder as a result of conferences and hearings, informal or formal. The supervisory methods are flexible, and diligent attention is given to the injured worker's rights. But, as has been said, the routine does not represent the maximum of simplicity or economy, since it is inevitably in part a duplication of work done by the insurance adjusters.

*The direct-settlement method.*—Most of the claims in Wisconsin are disposed of by the direct-settlement method. Payment is made in uncontested cases upon the initiative of the employer or insurance carrier, under close supervision by the industrial commission. The effort of the administration is to provide, through this plan, a "speedy, simple, and inexpensive procedure." But in speeding up the procedure, there is no relaxing of standards applicable to thoroughness in the examination of reports or in the inquiries and hearings. In this respect Wisconsin presents as good an example for study as may be found in private insurance jurisdictions. The system has been

described in a study of the Industrial Commission of Wisconsin, by A. J. Altmeyer,[10] and more briefly in the 1932–34 report of the Industrial Commission of Wisconsin on Workmen's Compensation. In describing its practice, the commission groups the claims under the headings "uncontested" and "contested" cases.

*Uncontested cases.*—This term is applied to all cases in which applications for the adjustment of the claim are not filed, although they may have given rise to serious disputes between the parties. If these disputes are adjusted through correspondence or through informal conferences, then the case is termed "uncontested."

It has always been the policy of the commission not to formally approve any settlements in "uncontested" cases. In all such cases the commission tries to determine whether the settlement is made in accordance with the requirements of the law and when it discovers that this has not been done the employer or insurance carrier is advised to pay additional compensation. Since the commission does not formally approve the settlement, the case can be reopened at any time within 6 years if it develops that the full liability of the employer has not been discharged.[11]

In checking settlements the commission relies principally upon the reports of the employers and insurance carriers. Employers are required to make a report on the fourth day after the beginning of disability upon every accident and occupational disease entitling an injured employee to compensation. It also requires that the insurance companies or self-insured employers, on the eleventh day after an injury occurs, shall file a report showing that payment has commenced or the reason for not making payment. At the time payments are discontinued for any reason, another report must be submitted, and, if a dispute exists, a memorandum must be attached advising of the nature of the dispute. When a final settlement is made this must be promptly reported to the commission and such final report must be accompanied by a copy of the final receipt signed by the injured employee. The commission also requires the filing of doctor's reports in all cases in which there is any permanent partial disability, or in which the temporary disability exceeded three weeks. These several reports are used as a check against each other, and a follow-up system is employed to see that they are supplied promptly to the commission.

In addition to this system of reports from employers and insurance carriers, the commission establishes direct contact with injured employees. As soon as the commission receives knowledge from any source of an accident to an employee entitling him to compensation, it sends him a circular letter advising him of his rights and duties under the compensation act, which suggests also that he write the commission, if a dispute develops, or if he is in doubt upon any point.

The commission has also developed a plan for investigating and systematically following up cases in which there is a probability that injured employees are entitled to increased compensation. Every case which the commission's safety department believes may possibly involve a violation of a general safety order is investigated by one of the commission's deputies. If his investigation indicates that the accident was due to the employer's failure to comply with a general order of the commission, the employer is advised of this fact. If the employer admits liability, the commission sees to it that the increased compensation is paid. If he disputes liability the matter is brought on for formal hearing before the commission.

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[10] University of Wisconsin Studies in the Social Sciences and History, No. 17, 1932, p. 35.

[11] In some cases the commission permits a compromise settlement, which, if approved, cannot be set aside after 1 year from the date of approval.

Cases involving the employment of minors in violation of the child labor law, which entitles them to either "double" or "treble" compensation, are handled by the commission in a similar manner.

*Contested cases.*—Contested cases are initiated by an application for the adjustment of the claim, coming usually from the injured employee, but sometimes from the employer or insurance carrier. Hearings upon these contested cases are conducted at county seats and industrial centers throughout the State, to avoid the expense to the interested parties of bringing witnesses to Madison. These hearings are conducted either by an examiner or by one member of the commission. A complete stenographic record is made of all testimony taken, although the proceedings are otherwise informal.

Since October 1, 1933, examiners have made findings and orders upon matters heard by them. This has obviated much of the delay which previously occurred because of the necessity of the commission as a body deciding compensation matters. The law permitting examiners to make findings and orders in contested cases has resulted in speedier and more carefully considered decisions than otherwise could have been the case in view of the multifarious demands made upon the time of members of the commission.

*The agreement system.*—A description of the agreement-system routine, as it operates in Pennsylvania, is found in the November 1937 Laborgraphic, published by the Pennsylvania Department of Labor and Industry.

If a Pennsylvania employee is injured in the course of his employment, he should notify his employer at once. The employer shall notify the department of labor and industry of the accident within 15 days. If the injury disables the worker for more than 7 days, an agreement should be made with the employer for compensation. Two copies of such agreement shall be sent within 30 days to department for approval. If the agreement is approved, the employee and employer are notified. The employee is sent a copy of the approved agreement and compensation shall be paid accordingly. If disapproved, compensation shall be paid according to first agreement until case is finally settled by revised agreement or decision of workmen's compensation board. If employee and employer fail to reach such an agreement, the employee may file a claim petition with the board. The board will assign the case for hearing and decision by workmen's compensation referee. The referee's decision may be appealed by either party to the board. Further appeal may be made to a court of common pleas, and then to the superior court, whose decision is final unless appeal is allowed by the State supreme court.

The agreement system is slower than the direct-settlement method. In theory, it has the advantage of giving the injured worker a chance to look over the proposed settlement and correct possible errors or injustice in computing the payment. In practice, the worker may not know his rights under the compensation law; neither is he in a position to bargain with the employer or insurance carrier; and consequently it is open to question whether he should be required to sign an agreement before receiving the benefits specified in the statute. Investigations have shown that in the absence of vigilant supervision by the State agency, the agreement system affords little protection to the injured worker.

*The hearing system.*—The only example in the United States or Canada of a claims system under which hearings have been scheduled

for all claims was established in New York after the Connor investigation in 1919. This "hearing system," as it has been called, was explained to the conference of the International Association of Industrial Accident Boards and Commissions in 1929 by V. A. Zimmer, the compensation director:

> We receive in New York State every year upwards of 500,000 reports of accidents sent in to the department by the employers. The compensation bureau sends every one of these injured workmen a claim form; and we make up a case folder and index it, even though we have no claim, if the paper indicates a possible or probable prima-facie disfigurement or anything of any serious nature on the face of it, even though the disability is indicated as being less than 7 days. Then, on every single claim that comes in, even though the claimant may allege disability of only 2 days and no permanent disability, we automatically make up claims on that form, and they are all indexed, numbered, and listed for calendar hearing.[12]

The compensation director said that a series of facts had indicated the advisability of curtailing the number of hearings. In the annual report of the New York Industrial Commissioner for 1936, it was said that the division of workmen's compensation was weeding out the noncompensable injury cases and forestalling the useless filing of claims.

> The new procedure is as follows: Upon receipt of reports on minor injuries which indicate that the worker will not lose more than 1 week's time or suffer any permanent injury, a letter of advice, rather than a compensation claim form, is sent to the injured worker. In simple language the letter informs the worker that the nature of his injury appears to be such that he will not be eligible for compensation, but that if this information is inaccurate he should promptly file a claim, or if he desires to protect himself against any future complication resulting from the injury he may file a claim and a hearing will be held on it. This change in procedure was the result of a study of a number of cases which clearly indicated that many workers suffering only slight noncompensable injury accepted the receipt of a compensation claim form as an invitation for filing a claim.

In its conception, the New York hearing system provides the worker an iron-clad protection against an unjust settlement. In practice, the disadvantages of the system are: The worker's loss of time and money in attending hearings; delays and continuances arising from congested hearing dockets; the pressure of minor cases, making it difficult for the referees to give adequate consideration to the serious injury cases[13]; inconvenience to physicians having to attend the hearings; and expense to the employers and insurance carriers for attendance or representation.

### METHODS OF CLAIM SETTLEMENT UNDER COURT ADMINISTRATION

Court administration of compensation claims is still found in Alabama, Alaska, Louisiana, New Hampshire, New Mexico, Tennessee, and Wyoming. So far as is known, no constructive contribution to

[12] U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics Bulletin No. 511, p. 302.

[13] Compensation referees conducted 378,883 hearings throughout the State during 1936. (Report of the New York Industrial Commissioner, 1936, p. 8.)

the theory and practice of compensation claims-settlement methods has been made by any American jurisdiction under court administration. On the contrary, the merit of the systems displacing court administration may, as a rule, be gaged by the relative completeness of their departure from court attitudes and practices. Except in the State of Wyoming, where the judges have installed a form of administration under their clerks or stenographers, the court administration of workmen's compensation is virtually nonadministration except in contested cases. The judges seldom have time, in most jurisdictions, either for examining the files relating to workmen's compensation claims, or for giving special study to workmen's compensation legislation and the intricate problems peculiar to this branch of administration. Under court administration, as a rule, there are no accessible records (outside the private files of the insurance carriers) of the majority of the cases in regard to which no court action is sought by the parties. If accident reports are sent in at all to any public agency, they are seldom used for statistical purposes or as an aid to accident prevention or a check on violations of labor laws. In the cases in which a record of a claim agreement is filed with the courts for approval, the customary routine is for the clerk of the court to examine the document to see if both parties have signed and acknowledged it in proper form. If so, he "rubber stamps" it and that is the end of the transaction as far as any public supervision is concerned. Under this system, the abuses, especially as to delay and flagrant underpayment, are more serious and prevalent than under any other form of claims administration.[14]

### *Contested Cases*

While uncontested claims commonly receive no further attention from the State agency than a supervisory check as to correctness of settlement, made by clerks, claims officers, and in rare instances by the medical staff of the commission, a hearing system is provided for contested cases. Few compensation commissions have exact figures as to the percentage of contested and uncontested claims. Estimates given by administrators in the States as to the percent of cases settled without contest range from "probably 80 percent, including 'medical only' cases" in Colorado to more than 99 percent in Arizona. The basis upon which the percentage of contested and uncontested cases is estimated is seldom exactly the same in any two jurisdictions, hence it should be understood when interstate comparisons are attempted that the figures range from broad guesses to fairly precise

[14] This statement is not applicable to Wyoming, where the court administration is reinforced by the claims administration of an exclusive State fund and some defects of court administration are counteracted. Alaska was not visited in the course of the survey made by the Bureau of Labor Statistics.

calculations.[15] As noted, the New York plan was until recently a virtually universal hearing system regardless of contest. Payments in compensable cases start without waiting for the hearing.

The available figures, while faulty for purposes of interstate comparison, show clearly that the actual work of administration is or should be mainly supervisory, even though the compensation agency is described as a "quasi-judicial" body. But where the administration is inadequate the demands upon its time made by the contested cases may unbalance its working program and seriously impair the supervision required by the majority of the claims.

Under the Ontario plan the type of contested hearing that prevails in the States is unknown. There are no controversial hearings before a referee. Instead, in the very few cases requiring unusual investigation, a claims officer visits the claimant, interviews him, and then, without taking more of the injured worker's time, talks with the doctor, the employer, and other persons who know anything about the case. His report and findings are then submitted to the chief claims officer as the basis for a decision. If the claimant is not satisfied with the result he can appeal to the board. Although the decision of the board is final as far as court appeal is concerned, the case can be reopened at any time if fresh evidence is discovered or new phases of the injury develop. In British Columbia it was estimated in 1936 that hearings on disputed cases were required only in from one-tenth to one-twentieth of 1 percent of the claims. In Manitoba so few disputes remain unadjusted after informal conferences that it has not been necessary to report a hearing in shorthand oftener than once in 6 months.

In most of the States the proportion of contested cases, and also the time consumed in the controversies, increased during the depression. In Minnesota it was said by a compensation officer, in 1936, that contested "cases running 3 and 4 days are now as common as were cases running 1 day before the depression. Many cases consume an entire day." The increasing tendency of insurance carriers to contest claims during the years 1930–35 arose from an attempt to "save the last 10 percent" at a time when losses instead of profits were experienced. As for the claimants, the desperate situation of many workers during this period explains their determination to get all possible benefits after an injury. The situation was expressed in these words by a labor leader: "They [the insurance companies] gyp us and we try to gyp them." In such an atmosphere it is difficult for the commission to make prompt and just settlement of claims.

[15] Tables covering this and other points in administration will be suggested in the Bureau of Labor Statistics manual of industrial injury statistics, probably available by July 1938.

## *Hearings*

### PLACE OF HEARINGS

Compensation laws provide that if a hearing upon a claim is required, it shall be held at a place reasonably accessible to the worker. To meet this need, the commissioners in a body, or a commissioner, or an officer authorized to conduct hearings (variously known as an "examiner," "referee," "arbitrator," or "deputy commissioner") travel in a circuit and hold hearings in the towns nearest to places where accidents have occurred. In Connecticut and New York, there is regional decentralization as to hearings. In New York the officers travel out from the branch offices, but are subject to a centralized authority, while in Connecticut the commissioners are appointed by the Governor for separate districts. Under a 1937 amendment in Ohio there is now partial decentralization as to hearings, through the creation of four boards of claims, composed of three members each, appointed by the Governor.[16] The desirability of decentralization is open to question. In the absence of central control, cleavages appear in a type of administration that demands, for success, harmony of viewpoint and uniformity of action upon many matters of law and practice; and the services of the main office, if any, are deficient especially in regard to safety work, claim supervision, records, and statistics.

### PROCEDURE IN HEARINGS UPON CLAIMS

As already noted, one of the original aims of compensation legislation was to provide a simple, swift, and inexpensive method by which an injured worker could receive financial and medical aid. The passage of compensation statutes marked a revolt against the delay, uncertainty, and costliness of court remedies. The change from court to commission determination of claims was, however, a step into an unexplored field of administration. The technique essential to the success of the new procedure was imperfectly understood, if not distrusted. In the States the original purpose of compensation legislation to provide prompt and inexpensive service was impaired by halfway measures which left compensation procedure with one foot, so to speak, still in the courts. In Canada, as it has been explained, there has been virtually complete emancipation from court rules and practices in most of the Provinces. The Ontario act provides:

> SECTION 64. The commissioners shall * * * conduct their proceedings in such manner as they may deem most convenient for the proper discharge and speedy dispatch of business.
>
> SEC. 67. * * * The action or decision of the board * * * shall be final and conclusive and shall not be open to question or review in any court and no proceedings by or before the board shall be restrained by injunction, prohibition

[16] In Hawaii (not visited in the course of the present survey) there are four industrial accident boards each consisting of five members.

or other process or proceeding in any court or be removable by certiorari or otherwise into any court.

In the States, the desirability of making the administrative decision conclusive has seldom been discussed, and it is commonly supposed that there would be constitutional obstacles to such a development.[17] There can be no complete break with court methods in passing upon workmen's compensation claims as long as it is necessary for the compensation commissions to build up paper records of cases with a regard to the kind of evidence that may be required by the courts as a basis for sustaining the decisions made by the commissions. In their work, the commissioners in the States have been compelled to keep one eye upon the courts. This has warped the development of compensation administration in most of the States, giving the commissions a legalistic twist that has hampered their full development as social-service agencies.

Most of the compensation acts specifically provide that the compensation officers, in conducting hearings, shall not be bound by court rules of evidence, and that the procedure shall be informal.

Where the compensation procedure is made cumbersome and technical, serious delays are inevitable. Official and unofficial investigations in Illinois, Ohio, and New Jersey, have shown the abuses that thrive in such a situation.[18]

The report of the Joint Commission on Study of the Workmen's Compensation Act and Practices, submitted to the New Jersey Legislature, April 12, 1935, said:

> This (compensation) act never contemplated that agreements of settlements should be reached in a room that is a replica of a courtroom and following as nearly as it can court procedure. The referees are looked upon as judicial officers, when they in fact should not be so. Many of the unfortunates that are called before them in formal hearings are not versed in court procedure, some are illiterate, a number cannot even speak English. They stand alone, unrepresented, while an alert, well-versed and informed representative of an employer, who knows his rights, is opposed to him.

This statement is subject to modification at the point where the claimant is described as "unrepresented." In some instances he may be so, but under the system prevailing in Illinois, New Jersey, and Ohio, it is often necessary for the claimant to have an attorney at

[17] Downey's argument against appeals from the administrative agency to the courts has had no influence upon compensation development in the States. He said: "The grounds for allowing an appeal from the administrative board to a court are rather a matter of constitutional fetichism than of reasoned policy * * *. It nowhere appears that court review of compensation cases has served any useful end * * *. The commissioners ought to be, and often are, fully equal to the judges in intellectual ability and general attainments. They are daily deciding compensation cases and are familiar as no court of law can be with the practical effect of particular interpretations." E. H. Downey; Workmen's Compensation, pp. 73-75.

[18] It is not the purpose of the present study to expose the abnormal short-comings of any particular administration but to evaluate the working of types of administration and their desirability. Where there has been gross laxity in the appointment of hearing officers, no system, of course, would be efficient. A fuller discussion of handicapped hearing systems, with specific reference to alleged abuses, may be found in Dodd's Administration of Workmen's Compensation, under the topic "Hearings."

formal hearings since he is in no position to "stand alone, unrepresented," and he is frequently represented at a cost he can ill afford to bear, especially as the service rendered by some attorneys engaged by claimants is inexpert or slipshod, according to the universal report of commissioners.

The Ohio act fastens upon the compensation agency a cumbersome and costly procedure in "rehearings" prefatory to court appeals. Attorneys in Ohio are active in securing business from compensation claimants, and as a result there is an excessive number of controverted and appealed cases. A "rehearing" is required before an appeal may be taken to the courts, and under the Ohio law an entirely new record must be made, under court rules of evidence, at such rehearings. The impact of this provision upon the entire Ohio compensation system is highly detrimental. An undue amount of the attention of the more expert compensation personnel and also of the commissioners is consumed by the controversial aspects of claim settlement, and in consequence the commissioners are deprived of time needed for adequate attention to the major business of their vast insurance enterprise. The handicapping of the Ohio fund by such an undesirable feature in the law is especially unfortunate, because the fund has been publicized as a "model" and consequently exposed to attack by opponents of State insurance. Prompt performance is not possible under a cumbersome procedure, the remedy for which is primarily a change in the law.

### WORKMEN'S COMPENSATION PERSONNEL

To guard against bias in the conduct of claims administration and hearings, in most jurisdictions the appointing authority takes care that both employees and employers are represented on the commission. In practice, if compensation administration is perceptibly affected by "bias," the leaning is usually favorable to the claimant. With but few exceptions, compensation officers report that they give the claimant "the benefit of the doubt," in deciding upon the preponderance of the evidence. Several compensation officers report that they are impartial and favor neither one side nor the other. In general, the administrators and the courts hold that the compensation act is social legislation to be liberally interpreted. On the one hand, some labor organizations criticize an administration or certain of its officers as "employer minded," but on the other hand insurance carriers insist that the administrations are either liberal or "ultra liberal." Personal observation of hearings leads to the conclusion that where there is dissatisfaction with the manner of conducting hearings (under the rules applicable to the existing type of hearings), the difficulty arises

not so much from bias but from the hearing officer's inexperience, lack of especial fitness for this type of work, or imperfect understanding of the social phases of compensation insurance. There are hearing officers whose work is notable, and in several jurisdictions the hearings are conducted on a high level of efficiency. But some hearing officers bring to bear upon their tasks a business or legal experience insufficiently ripened by acquaintance with the medical and vocational problems which in the main are the substance of compensation situations. Consequently, there has been a sterile legalistic drift in compensation administration in many of the States. The things done may be skillfully done, without being the most desirable things to do in the circumstances. In some cases the procedure may be obviously harmful to an injured worker.

In general, the officers conducting hearings are hard-working and capable persons. In some instances, their travel and hearing routine is exhausting. Some of the deficiencies in the conduct of hearings arise from the overcrowded hearing schedules. In certain jurisdictions or in some circuits it is not possible for any officer to give adequate attention to the volume of business awaiting disposal. There have been charges that some compensation officers are slackers. In a few instances the charges are well-attested, but on the whole such a situation is so exceptional in compensation administration as scarcely to deserve mention in a Nation-wide study. Some such administrative failures are inevitable wherever many appointments are made upon a political basis regardless of the special qualifications for compensation work of the persons appointed to office.

### MEDICAL CONTROVERSIES

The most serious and common defect in the conduct of compensation hearings in the States arises from the toleration of prolonged medical controversies. Many compensation officers do not know the best method of handling, or preferably stopping, public medical controversies over the condition of injured workmen in the presence of the unfortunate victims of industrial accidents. If some injured workers are not already "shell shocked" or neurotic before they attend a hearing and listen to the medical testimony, they are indeed hardy and nonsuggestible if they leave the hearings in other than a hopeless state of mind. It is a common occurrence for medical witnesses, in order to obtain a maximum disability rating for the worker, to testify loudly and emphatically that the injured man will never be able to resume his accustomed occupation, that he is seriously and permanently disabled, that his condition will get worse instead of better,

and as an occasional climax that the worker may die soon.[19] Such a practice in connection with hearings has long been recognized as highly detrimental to the worker and sometimes responsible for irreparable harm. But in spite of its comdemnation the abuse is widely prevalent in the States. In Canada, commissioners said that public medical controversy in the presence of the injured worker is unknown in their compensation practice. Under the procedure in the States the proper practice is for the hearing officer, as soon as a medical controversy begins, to refer the injured worker either to the medical staff of the commission or to an impartial medical expert for examination. Controversial medical testimony is an outstanding example of "hang-overs" from court procedure grafted upon compensation practice by legislatures and administrators acquainted with court methods but less familiar with the more scientific method of inquiry and the care needed by injured persons. A drastic reform at this point awaits the public recognition, in the States, that workmen's compensation administration is a new professional specialty and not a revamping of the accustomed phases of law practice. Examples of the proper handling of medical controversies may be found in several of the more advanced jurisdictions, especially in Massachusetts and New York, but nowhere in the States has controversial testimony been completely eliminated.

## *Appeals to Courts*

A study of claims procedure in the States shows that the main chronic difficulty in regard to uncontested cases is the loss sustained by injured workers through deficient supervision of the process, while in regard to contested and especially the appealed cases the chronic difficulty is the delay and cost incident to the type of procedure that is provided for handling controversies. From time to time these deficiencies are measured and also investigated. There is underlying some of these measurements or exposures the assumption that the kind of administration being measured would be satisfactory if some

[19] This statement rests upon personal observation of medical controversies, which, in some jurisdictions, may continue for two or more entire days in a single case.

Joseph A. Parks, chairman (1937) of the Massachusetts Department of Industrial Accidents, in U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics Bulletin No. 577, p. 172, commented on the harmful effect upon the injured worker of listening to medical testimony about his disability as follows:

> The doctors will testify very glibly in order to establish the man's case so that he may get compensation, forgetting entirely that they are doing everything they can to put the man on the shelf where he will not be able to work any more. In their endeavor to help the attorney put the case across so that the commissioner will award compensation, physicians often do the man an injustice.
>
> Let me give you an illustration of this. A man in one of the large cities of Massachusetts, who was a woodworker, had a serious injury to one of his hands, the hand that was needed in his work. Five doctors, one after the other, got up and testified that that man could never be a woodworker again. He was a man, not yet 45 years of age, who had never done anything but woodworking in this particular city * * * and these doctors were advertising broadcast to that city that he was through as a woodworker—let anybody take notice that this man cannot work as a woodworker any more.
>
> Why were they doing this? To establish the fact that he should get $18 a week compensation, and he was a man accustomed to making about $45 a week.
>
> When the doctors were through, I called the man over and said, "Here, I will tell you what I would do if I were you. Don't take any notice of these doctors who are comdemning you to oblivion." The tears came in his eyes; he liked his work. I said, "You go back to work; do the best you can." He burst into tears and said, "I will." Within 2 weeks that man was back at work as a woodworker. For all I know, he is working today. That was some years ago.

of the slack could be taken up. In the light of a comprehensive survey, however, it is apparent that the defects arise in large part from the basis of the administration.

A reconsideration of the basis of compensation procedure in the States is long overdue and urgently needed, because it is evident that the principles best suited to the settlement of claims of injured workers are not generally understood either by compensation administrators, legislatures, or the constituencies having most to do with securing amendments of the compensation acts. The most common example of such misapprehension is the sporadic introduction of bills in legislatures to widen the scope of appeals from administrative decisions to the courts. Those who reap a profit from litigation have in many localities led workers to overestimate the value of their constitutional right to court controversy in compensation cases, and the worker has seldom examined the argument either as to its applicability to compensation procedure or the cost of such "rights" to him.

If the so-called constitutional right of appeal had proved advantageous to injured workers, its unsuitability to the compensation system might be overlooked. But court appeals in compensation cases have proved, on the whole, to be both harmful to the administration and costly to the workers. It is unfortunate that the compensation commissions have not presented in their reports statements and tables which would make plain to workers their losses on court appeals. The report of the Industrial Commission of Minnesota for the years 1933–34 shows that of 87 cases appealed to the supreme court, 46 were affirmed, 6 modified, 7 reversed, 8 dismissed, and 20 were still pending. From such a statement it is apparent that all parties lost, in Minnesota, through appealing, because the few revisions of awards by the supreme court would have amounted to less than the attorneys' fees and court costs. To the workers, however, the information is meaningless as presented, because it does not show in dollars and cents the difference between amounts awarded by the commission and by the court decisions.

In Nevada and Virginia the workers have discovered that they have more to lose than gain in the courts and have almost ceased appealing.

The Nevada Industrial Commission claims that it has "by far the lowest percentage of controverted claims" (meaning court trials) "of any State in the Union, and this results in a saving to the taxpayers of many thousands of dollars in court costs each year. During this biennium" (1934–36) "two cases, which were filed in the previous period by dissatisfied claimants against the commission, have been adjudicated, resulting in a victory for the commission in one instance, an adjustment without having to resort to final court action in a

second case, and a third is still pending in the United States District Court." [20]

In Virginia in the year 1932 there were 13 cases appealed to the State supreme court of appeals. In nine of these cases the appeal was denied, in two cases the decision of the commission was affirmed, in no case was the commission's decision reversed, and two cases are pending. In 1934 out of 14 cases appealed, the appeal was denied in 10 cases, two cases were pending, and there were two reversals of the decision. The Virginia report, like the Minnesota report, does not show whether the appeals were mainly taken by claimants or by the insurance carriers, hence it is impossible to tell which parties lost the most by appeals, but it is apparent that the percentage of reversals of the commission by the court is so small that it would be more than counterbalanced by the aggregate court costs and attorneys' fees, leaving a net loss for all parties on the prolonged controversy.

In certain jurisdictions the widest possible latitude of appeal is found, sometimes secured through the influence of workers upon the legislature, and occasionally through the influence of attorneys. The Texas Workmen's Compensation Act allows complete freedom of appeal from the decision of the commission both upon questions of fact and law, followed by a trial de novo in the lower courts with further opportunity for appeals to the higher courts. A study of the cost to the workers of such appeals was made for the Texas State Federation of Labor. Tables prepared in that study show that in all Texas Employers Insurance Association cases appealed from the award of the industrial accident board during the years 1932–34, the board's awards totaled $685,102, the court judgments $623,828, the claimants' legal expense [21] $207,943, and the claimants' net recovery $415,885. These figures, showing a net loss to claimants of $269,216, exclusive of incidental expenses and interest, confirms the conclusions upon which the Ontario plan for the settling of claims was based.[22]

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[20] Nevada Industrial Commission. Report, 1934–36, p. 7.

[21] "Claimants' legal expense" is based on the statutory legal fee of one-third of the amount recovered. It does not include additional expense incurred by the claimant for witness fees and other necessary incidental expenses of a trial which undoubtedly are very considerable.

[22] From time to time the desirability of barring appeals to the courts, in compensation practice, is reexamined by legislatures in Canada. In Manitoba, in March 1935, all 15 members of a special committee for studying the act and administration voted against changing this provision of the act. Reasons for continuing the existing plan under which the board's decisions are final were given in the Winnipeg Tribune, March 12, 1935:

> The present system provides greater and more certain benefits to the injured workmen than would a system of unlimited appeal. In 9 cases out of 10, the workmen cannot afford to appeal, and the costs of appeal would be out of all proportion to the added damages he might collect.
>
> The practice, uniform throughout Canada, of making the Provincial compensation board the final arbiter * * * is at once the most efficient and the most reliable method of securing adequate compensation for those who are injured in industrial pursuits.
>
> It is quite true that such a system has a tendency toward rigidity, and that it theoretically conflicts with a canon of British common law. But periodical revisions such as that now being carried out in Manitoba are an adequate safeguard against undue rigidity, and until costs of appeal cease to be in themselves a handicap to claimants, it is better to have the claims promptly and finally adjudicated.
>
> It is of especial interest in this connection that the chairman of the Manitoba board took the initiative in proposing to allow court appeals, saying that the board could not be right every time. This gave workmen and employers the opportunity for a unanimous vote of confidence in administrative decisions.

The Texas experience with court appeals from the administrative decision is of vital interest to workers because in that State there is the latitude of appeal both upon fact and law, with trial de novo which some local organizations of workers are seeking to obtain in other States. The industrial accident board commented upon the situation in its biennial report (mimeographed), September 1, 1932, to August 31, 1934:

> During the year ending August 31, 1932, a total of 1,265 cases were appealed from the industrial accident board * * * It was just slightly more than 43 percent of the contested cases passed on by the board. * * * Of the 1,265 cases appealed to the courts only 745 had been tried on January 1, 1933. The remaining 520, or 41 percent, are still pending in the courts. Of the above-mentioned 745, in which judgments were rendered, many were settled by agreed judgment immediately after they were appealed, and a number have now been appealed to the court of civil appeals. Practically every one of these settlements on agreed judgments could have been made before the industrial accident board and court costs would have been eliminated and attorneys' fees decreased. The result would have been beneficial both to the employers who paid premiums, and to the employees who were entitled to the compensation.

From every point of approach it is plain that constitutional rights to litigation, superimposed upon compensation administration in the States, are a burden instead of an advantage to the claimant. Labor's main chance for more satisfactory handling of compensation claims is not through appeals to the courts, but through a program for improving the compensation law and administration.

Mr. Downey has said that "the grounds for allowing an appeal from the administrative board to a court are rather a matter of constitutional fetichism than of reasoned policy." On the other hand it has been said that "under our conditions it would be unwise to remove the restraint of judicial review unless we could build up a personnel with an independence and a tenure comparable to that of the courts." But it is apparent that the judicial review of a small percentage of the cases handled by a compensation board is not a satisfactory remedy for an undesirable personnel situation. In the present survey no instance has been found where the deficiency of an administration has been made good by advantages derived from the court review of decisions. A cumbersome procedure intensifies instead of cures the evils in such a situation, while the chance for an appeal to the courts has sometimes diverted the attention of workers from more suitable remedies for an intolerable situation.[23]

If an examination of the law shows that in any jurisdiction the constitution makes it necessary to superimpose litigation upon the service methods of settling compensation claims, it is of course possible to change constitutional provisions at points where they block

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[23] For a statement of these contrasting viewpoints, see Downey (Workmen's Compensation, pp. 73-74) and Dodd (Administration of Workmen's Compensation, p. 785, footnote 3).

socially desirable developments. In Idaho in 1936, by a referendum vote, the State constitution was amended so as to eliminate intermediate appeals and to provide that in compensation cases the supreme court shall have jurisdiction to review questions of law only upon direct appeal from orders of the industrial accident board. National conferences on labor legislation have recommended that "appeals from decrees" of the compensation agency "should not be allowed except on questions of law and should be carried direct to the highest court." [24] In the face of such a recommendation and the accumulated experience of a quarter of a century, some local labor groups have continued to advocate statutory changes to widen instead of restrict appeals to the courts.

## *Summary*

There appears to be a need for restudying the procedural systems of the various States, with a scientific instead of a traditional approach to this phase of the social security program. On behalf of the existing system it has been assumed that in the States the compensation procedure must be built in part upon court patterns because the constitution guarantees the rights of cross-examination and court appeal. But so far as the constitutional argument is concerned, the compensation statutes themselves, in the inception of the program, were challenged as unconstitutional because they required the employer to pay for injuries to workmen even when the employer was not at fault. Not only was the principle of compensation new, but the rights of claimants were safeguarded by measures unknown to the common law. For example, in most jurisdictions, instead of the case being closed after a decision, as in the courts, it remains open for years. In some of the Canadian Provinces it is never closed. Within reason, the opportunity for a new medical examination or for the consideration of further developments continues for years under any properly drafted compensation act.[25] Not only is there under compensation statutes this continuing jurisdiction of the commission, but in most States the parties may have several appeals or rehearings before referees, commissioners, or boards. Within the administrative system the claimant is therefore better safeguarded against error or injustice than is the ordinary litigant in the courts. The claimant, having been given rights unknown to the common law, is also provided with better and more convenient service for ascertaining and guarding his rights than that found in the courts. In view of the disadvantage to claimants of court appeals, further study should be given to the possibility

[24] U. S. Division of Labor Standards, Bulletin No. 12, p. 98.

[25] For example, if there is recurrent disability arising from latent progressive impairment caused by an injury supposed long since to have healed, as in cases of osteomyelitis, the claimant may ask to have compensation payments renewed.

of a compensation system in the States under which the administrative decision is final.

The intricate nature of the study of compensation administration and procedure in the settlement of claims makes it desirable at this point to recapitulate the conclusions thus far presented, before examining other phases of the subject.

In the Provinces of Canada the procedure in settling claims is simple, because the method is that of inquiry. There is no duplication in the work done by insurance carrier and supervisory agency in the examination of claims, because these activities are consolidated in an exclusive fund. The system is pronounced satisfactory by the major groups of organized labor and also by employers. Where there is dissatisfaction it is with regard to detail. The major groups of organized labor have opposed proposals to change the system, under which the administrative decision upon claims is final except in two Provinces where there is provision for a very restricted appeal to the courts on certain questions of law.

In the States the administration of claim settlement is complicated (1) by duplication of work, in private insurance jurisdictions, in the examination of claims both by the insurance carrier or self-insurer and the supervisory agency; (2) by the provision for controversial hearings with cross-examination of witnesses and public "adversative" medical testimony in the presence of the injured workmen, making necessary in many cases the employing of attorneys and medical witnesses; and (3) by the provision for appeal to the courts. Because of these features compensation administration, while less costly and time consuming than court procedure, is burdensome to injured workers in contested and appealed cases. The service features of compensation administration are handicapped by the diversion of the officers' attention to the controversial fringe of administration. In consequence, there has been a legalistic drift in most of the jurisdictions, with a lack of understanding of the social phases of compensation administration and an almost complete neglect of research activities except in two or three jurisdictions.

In regard to methods and procedure the past 15 years of compensation experience in the States may be summarized by saying that there have been many changes and with a few exceptions but little improvement. In many jurisdictions the compensation personnel has not remained in office long enough to learn its work thoroughly. In some jurisdictions the accumulated knowledge of administration has been swept away from time to time by an almost complete periodic turnover in personnel. A few of the administrations are more deficient today than they were 15 years ago.

The persistence in some States of the same well-known delays in payment and inadequacies of administration, in spite of their repeated exposure by investigations, emphasizes the necessity for a fresh study of causes. The key to some compensation problems may be found in case studies of the situation and needs of injured workers. Very few such studies have been made by compensation administrators. Moreover, many investigations of compensation administration have overlooked one of the most vital points in the process, the work of the insurance carriers' examiners or "adjusters," [26] perhaps because it is supposed to lie outside the scope of activity of the State agency. In the broader sense, compensation administration actually begins with the first contacts made with an injured worker by the employer's staff or the officers of the insurance carrier.

The constructive approach to compensation procedural problems is an understanding of the condition of injured workmen. In a discussion of the Problem of the Crippled Man in Industry, Carl Hookstadt invited attention to some of the causes out of which subsequent administrative difficulties arise:

> The injury produces a sense of helplessness and uselessness. The injured man's self-reliance is temporarily destroyed and he feels that he is "done for" for the remainder of his life. Coupled with this is a feeling of resentment and bitterness toward society for his injury. In many cases he refuses to cooperate and adopts an antagonistic attitude toward all efforts to help him. His unfamiliarity with his legal rights prevents him from distinguishing between those who wish to help him and those who desire to exploit him. Usually the first person with whom he comes in contact following his injury is the insurance company adjuster, who often antagonizes him and arouses his suspicions. The agent's efforts to obtain the facts in the case in order to ascertain whether and to what extent the company is liable are interpreted as an attempt to take advantage of him. In many cases the agent is tactless, unsympathetic, and inclined to take advantage of the employee. At the very point when the injured man is in most need of assistance and sympathetic advice he meets with indifference and exploitation. This initial experience colors all his subsequent acts and has an important effect upon his reaction toward medical treatment, rehabilitation, and reemployment.[27]

This analysis is confirmed by some observant compensation administrators, who attribute most cases of "neurosis" among injured workers to antagonisms between the injured man and the insurance adjuster. The service of such adjusters or examiners, many of whom are insufficiently paid for their responsible duties, is uneven, some adjusters doing work of a professional standard while the practice of

[26] The term "claims adjuster" properly belongs to employers' liability insurance practice and not to workmen's compensation, since the compensation act specifies what the injured worker is entitled to receive and consequently, in theory, there is nothing to adjust. But in fact the claims examiners and officers are still to some extent "adjusters" in many jurisdictions.

[27] U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics Bulletin No. 264, pp. 218, 219.

others is vitiated both by lack of knowledge of the subject and by "short changing" attitudes which are a relic of adjusting under "employers' liability" insurance. This situation is not automatically remedied by the creation of a State fund, unless the fund's examiners are properly selected and trained, which is not always done. The need for raising the standard of performance in claims examination or adjustment is therefore general, and applies both to the employees of private and public compensation insurance carriers.

The reorganization of compensation administration, where needed, should begin at this point. No step would be more fruitful than for the jurisdictions to prescribe professional standards and responsibility for compensation insurance examiners or adjusters. This would be quite as pertinent as prescribing standards for a boiler inspector. The licensing of compensation insurance adjusters would also give the compensation agency a better approach to the supervision of claim settlement, which in the past has been inadequate in most jurisdictions.

Some of the larger compensation insurance carriers are already giving both preemployment and post-employment training for examiners, and the private carriers are in a position to make rigorous selection of employees as to suitable personality. The fixing of standards for examiners would help to reduce unfair competition among carriers.

Since investigations of compensation administration have shown the persistence of inadequate supervision of claim settlement under both the so-called "agreement system" and the direct-settlement system in private insurance jurisdictions, the study of possible new types of supervision is recommended. The inexpertness of many State administrations is due in part to the disproportion of clerical to professional employees. Some of the State administrations have, strictly speaking, virtually no employees of professional qualifications in the field of compensation work. In consequence, the State personnel lacks the depth of knowledge for making a penetrating check upon the difficult details of claim settlement, such as wage computation and the interpretation of medical and other reports. Moreover, the greater part of the reports received give inadequate or poorly prepared information. Much of the clerical work done, therefore, in the checking of details of claims settlement, is in most jurisdictions inadequate and in some jurisdictions almost futile.[28]

If the work of the insurance carriers' claims examiners could be put upon a responsible professional basis the supervisory routine might be simplified. An experiment might be made to ascertain whether or not

[28] With regard to safeguarding the injured worker by checking all accident reports and mailing to the worker information upon his rights, the situation in many jurisdictions as of 1935–36 is indicated by this typical statement of a compensation officer: "At the present time this work is considerably curtailed due to shortage of funds." In one jurisdiction it was explained that there was a shortage of postage stamps for mailing information to workers.

a competent check upon settlements, by sampling files, would be as effective and less time-consuming than the present method of supervising settlements by attempting to check the details of all reports and settlements. A triple check would be available: (1) Upon the professional attitude of a licensed examiner; (2) upon the files of accident reports and claims; and (3) through the direct contact of the commission and its officers with injured workmen, at conferences and hearings or field investigations. With such a rearrangement of the supervisory routine, a compensation agency would require fewer clerks without special compensation training and more employees of professional caliber. Research activities could be expanded and administration might become more vital. An experiment of the type suggested would throw further light upon the much-debated question of the place of private insurance carriers in a social-insurance system. For if the private insurance system is retained it is desirable, as far as claims practice and procedure is concerned, that the carriers should increasingly become self-regulating as to standards of claim settlement, since under the existing system the supervision of their practices by the compensation commissions has in most jurisdictions been inadequate.

In conclusion, it may be repeated that a workmen's compensation system, from start to finish, should be designed to fit the condition and needs of injured workers, and its performance should be judged by the degree to which this intent is in practice fulfilled.

# *Vacations With Pay*

## VACATIONS WITH PAY IN SWEDEN

INTRODUCTION of a system of vacations with pay for workers in all industries is receiving the attention of the Swedish trade-union movement. A committee of experts, for the drafting of legislation on uniform vacation practices, set up by the Government in 1936, published its report in December 1937.[1] The report contains data on results obtained through collective agreements regarding vacations with pay, and recommends legislation providing a minimum yearly vacation of 12 days for all Swedish workers and employees in public or private service.

At the beginning of 1937, there were in Sweden 5,448 collective agreements, covering 574,000 workers, which granted vacations with pay. Sixty percent of these agreements provided for holidays of 6 days or less, and 4 percent for 12 days or more. More than 170,000 of the 194,000 workers covered by agreements containing no vacation provisions were employed in the building and wood industry, agriculture, fisheries, etc. (i. e., seasonal industries). The committee emphasizes that there should be no difference of principle as between seasonal workers such as lumbermen who work for short periods with different employers, and other workers.

As regards vacations for salaried employees, the committee found that most of these workers enjoyed a yearly holiday of 2 weeks or more.

The committee's views as to number of vacation days, wages, etc., are based on the fundamental position that vacation days should be paid for at the same rate as working days, and that the right to vacation should depend on the work performed. It therefore proposed that piece work should also be considered in the calculation of wages.

On the basis of the labor costs prevailing in 1936, it was estimated that a paid vacation period of 12 days per annum would have increased the cost to industries and trades by approximately 55 million kronor, and the relative increase in cost in relation to estimated value of production in 1936 would have been 1.02 percent.

The recommended legislation proposes to make the right to vacation dependent on a worker's having been employed for at least 4

[1] Bulletin of the International Federation of Trade Unions, Paris, February 2, 1938; and report of Fred Morris Dearing, United States Minister, Stockholm, Sweden, January 14, 1938.

months by the same employer. One month's employment would entitle the worker to 1 day of paid vacation, provided he had actually been at work for at least 18 days. Days of holiday granted under the law would also be regarded as working days for purposes of calculation, and the same would apply to absences due to accidents.

Vacations are to be determined on the basis of work performed during the preceding year. The vacation period for workers employed during the whole year would be 12 working days. A worker who resigned at any time would have the right to demand the number of days of vacation to which his work had entitled him, even if he left at a time not ordinarily in the holiday period.

## ECONOMIC STATUS OF THE AGED

ALMOST 65 percent of the nearly 8,000,000 persons in the United States who were 65 years of age or over at the beginning of 1937 were dependent. This was the conclusion reached in a study recently made by the Social Security Board, the results of which are contained in an article in the March 1938 issue of the Social Security Bulletin.

Special interest attaches to this group of dependent aged because of the enactment of State and Federal legislation designed to provide some measure of economic security for them.

The report points out that opinion has been divided as to the extent of the actual need of special legislation for the aged.

Many individualists still believe that provision for old age should be a matter of personal initiative and that, by and large, only the improvident find it necessary to seek public or private charity. There is also widespread belief that government should not impinge upon the traditions of family responsibility for the aged. Then, too, it is pointed out, increasing numbers of persons are enjoying the benefits of public and private pensions and annuities as government systems expand and industry makes more generous provision for retired workers under group insurance.

In order to evaluate such statements and to arrive at a quantitative conception of the extent of dependency among the aged, analysis was made of the statistical, social, and economic data available. The results were embodied in the following table, reproduced from the report.

*Means of Support of Persons 65 Years of Age and Over in the United States, Compiled and Estimated, April 1937* [1]

| Economic status | Number | Percentage distribution |
|---|---|---|
| Estimated number of persons 65 and over in the United States, Jan. 1, 1937 | [2] 7,816,000 | 100.0 |
| Self-dependent [3] | 2,746,000 | 35.1 |
| By reason of— | | |
| Current earnings | 1,000,000 | 12.8 |
| Savings, real estate, or securities | 1,172,000 | 15.0 |
| Federal pensions: | | |
| Military service: | | |
| Veterans' Administration | 46,000 | 0.6 |
| Federal employees receiving military retirement pay (Army, Navy, Marine Corps, and Coast Guard) | 25,000 | 0.3 |
| Civil service | 33,000 | 0.5 |
| Other Federal employees | (4) | (5) |
| State pensions: | | |
| State employees | 6,000 | 0.1 |
| Teachers | 18,000 | 0.2 |
| Municipal pensions: | | |
| Policemen and firemen | 25,000 | 0.3 |
| Teachers | 7,000 | 0.1 |
| Other municipal employees | 10,000 | 0.1 |
| Private industrial pensions | 150,000 | 1.9 |
| Trade-union pensions | 10,000 | 0.1 |
| Other private pensions | 25,000 | 0.3 |
| Insurance annuities | 204,000 | 2.6 |
| Other resources | 15,000 | 0.2 |
| Dependent | 5,070,000 | 64.9 |
| Supported wholly or partially by public or private social agencies | 1,590,000 | 20.3 |
| In receipt of public assistance under the Social Security Act (December 1936) | 1,116,000 | 14.3 |
| In receipt of emergency unemployment relief, poor relief, or old-age assistance not under Social Security Act (noninstitutional care only) | 200,000 | 2.6 |
| In receipt of earnings or subsistence payments under the Works Program (December 1936) | 58,000 | 0.8 |
| In receipt of organized private charity | 10,000 | 0.1 |
| In public homes: | | |
| Local homes, almshouses, county homes, poor farms, infirmaries | 50,000 | 0.6 |
| State and Federal veterans homes and State homes for civilians | 17,000 | 0.2 |
| In hospitals for mental disease | 72,000 | 0.9 |
| In prisons and jails | 2,000 | (5) |
| In private homes for the aged (denominational, fraternal, nonsectarian, and other) | 55,000 | 0.7 |
| Other | 10,000 | 0.1 |
| Dependent on friends and relatives (wholly or almost wholly) | 3,480,000 | 44.6 |

[1] Compiled from latest data. All figures rounded to thousands. Data, unless otherwise stated, are reasonably correct as of some date during the year ended April 15, 1937. Data on pensioners adjusted, when possible, to refer only to persons 65 years of age or over. Persons under 65, retired because of disability, as well as widows under 65 and dependent minors, are generally excluded. Errors arising from lack of exact information as to age distribution are believed to be small and not biased in one direction. (For sources of specific figures, the reader is directed to the original report: Social Security Bulletin, March 1938, pp. 5–16.)

[2] Estimated for continental United States, Alaska, and Hawaii on the advice of the U. S. Bureau of the Census by the Division of Public Assistance Research, Bureau of Research and Statistics, Social Security Board. Total for Alaska and Hawaii, 13,877; little specific information available about the aged in these Territories.

[3] Many persons in this group are partially dependent even though they have some income from earnings, property, savings, or investments.

[4] Fewer than 1,000.

[5] Less than 1/10 of 1 percent.

# PROGRESS OF OLD-AGE ASSISTANCE IN THE UNITED STATES, 1936 AND 1937

THE END of 1937 marked also the end of two years' operation of the Federal social-security program. During this 2-year period the number of States and Territories in which old-age assistance was being granted rose from 32 to 50, and the number of persons aided rose from less than half a million to more than 1½ millions.

The first jurisdiction to extend special aid to needy aged was Alaska, where an old-age pension act went into effect in 1915. Gradually, additional legislatures acted in this field, but the expansion was very gradual until 1930. Beginning with that year the movement expanded at an increasing rate, which was speeded enormously by the passage of the Social Security Act by Congress in August 1935. Federal funds were not, however, made available under that act until February 1936. As the first grants were made for that month, data are not available for January and there is therefore a 1-month gap in the continuity of the figures.

Virginia was the only jurisdiction in the United States, at the end of 1936, which had neither an old-age assistance law on its statute books nor a "plan" for such assistance approved by the Federal board.

The following table gives summary data showing the development of assistance for needy aged in the United States since 1915. The table is based upon information obtained in surveys by the Bureau of Labor Statistics for the period through 1935, and from figures of the Social Security Board covering 1936 and 1937. A general gradual increase in the average monthly benefit is evident over the period, though a considerable reduction was suffered in the depression years of 1933 and 1934. The total amount disbursed in benefits has more than doubled each year since the Social Security Act went into force, but the number of beneficiaries also rose enormously, especially in 1936. In 1936, therefore, the average benefit was only 1 percent over that of the year before, when all of the cost was being borne by State and county governments; the year 1937, however, showed an increase of nearly 20 percent in the individual benefits paid.

***Development of Old-Age Assistance in the United States, 1915 to 1937***

| Year | Number of laws on statute books [1] | Number of laws in effect | Number of beneficiaries at end of year | Amount disbursed in benefits | Average monthly benefit (weighted) | Percent of increase, as compared with previous year, in— | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | | | | Beneficiaries | Total benefits | Average benefits |
| 1915 | 1 | 1 | 42 | $2,367 | $4.70 | | | |
| 1923 [2] | 2 | 2 | 518 | 49,595 | 7.98 | | | |
| 1924 | 2 | 2 | 723 | 107,648 | 12.41 | 39.6 | 117.1 | 69.8 |
| 1925 | 4 | 3 | 817 | 145,577 | 14.86 | 13.0 | 35.2 | 19.7 |
| 1926 | 5 | 3 | 1,165 | 229,980 | 16.46 | 42.6 | 58.0 | 10.8 |
| 1927 | 7 | 3 | 1,255 | 231,469 | 15.37 | 7.7 | .6 | [3] 6.6 |
| 1928 | 7 | 6 | 1,514 | 284,509 | 16.42 | 20.6 | 22.9 | 6.8 |
| 1930 [4] | 13 | 9 | 10,648 | 2,138,441 | 16.73 | 603.3 | 651.6 | .9 |
| 1931 | 18 | 16 | 76,663 | 16,251,794 | 19.01 | 620.0 | 660.0 | 13.6 |
| 1932 | 18 | 16 | 102,894 | 25,048,227 | 20.78 | 34.2 | 54.1 | 9.3 |
| 1933 | 29 | 17 | 115,549 | 26,167,117 | 19.25 | 12.3 | 4.5 | [3] 7.4 |
| 1934 | 30 | 27 | 235,265 | 32,394,993 | 14.53 | 103.6 | 23.8 | [3] 24.5 |
| 1935 | 41 | 32 | 408,502 | 65,001,665 | 15.57 | 73.6 | 100.7 | 7.2 |
| 1936 [5] | 42 | [6] 42 | 1,104,232 | [7] 135,979,582 | [8] 15.73 | 170.3 | 109.2 | 1.0 |
| 1937 | 50 | [6] 50 | 1,582,144 | [7] 310,872,850 | [8] 18.86 | 43.3 | 128.6 | 19.9 |

[1] Does not include in any year acts declared unconstitutional before going into effect.

[2] During the years 1916 to 1922 (not shown in the table) Alaska was the only jurisdiction paying old-age benefits; the average allowances paid there varied from $9.62 (in 1920) to $12.34 (in 1922).

[3] Decrease.

[4] No data collected for 1929.

[5] 11 months, February–December. Data cover only operations under Social Security Act. In addition Arizona paid benefits to about 2,500 pensioners, under a State-wide system but not under the Federal act; about 700 persons in Nevada received pensions, under a county-option law; and in Alaska about 500 persons received benefits under the Territorial act, but not under the Federal system.

[6] Includes 1 State without an old-age-assistance act but with a "plan" approved by the Federal Social Security Board.

[7] Obligations incurred.

[8] Average of monthly averages.

# Industrial Relations

## NEW CONCILIATION AND ARBITRATION LAW OF FRANCE

A LAW on conciliation and arbitration in collective labor disputes in France, broadening the scope of the arbitration law of December 31, 1936, was enacted March 4, 1938.[1] The new law, which is planned to accelerate the machinery of arbitration, introduces the principle of wage adjustments based on changes in the cost of living—a point of major importance in the questions submitted to arbitration under the former legislation.[2] Under the law appeals against decisions may not be taken to the ordinary courts, but a new court—the high court of arbitration—is created. It was provided that a separate law covering arbitration of agricultural disputes was to be passed by April 15, 1938.

The new law modifies article 31 of the first book of the Labor Code, relative to collective agreements; it provides the procedure for conciliation and arbitration which will govern all collective labor disputes arising between employers and employees subject to the obligations of the agreement. It further provides that the maximum delay permissible is 1 month for the settlement of each dispute, and 8 days for each phase of procedure. The law deals specifically with disputes arising under collective agreements which provide machinery for their settlement. It provides also that regulations governing the conciliation and arbitration procedure in other cases should be established within a month after the promulgation of the law. The terms of the decree covering such cases, issued April 20, are included in this article.

### *Procedure in Cases under Collective Agreements*

The terms of collective agreements relative to the procedure for conciliation should provide for the constitution of a joint conciliation commission, before which will be brought every collective labor dispute which has not been settled by the parties within the period fixed by the agreement.

Both parties to the dispute and the office of the prefect have the right to bring the dispute before the commission. The hearings will

[1] Journal Officiel de la République Française, Paris, March 5, 1938; and report by Edwin C. Wilson, charge d'affaires ad interim, American Embassy, Paris, March 8, 1938.

[2] See Monthly Labor Review, April 1937 (p. 902); and December 1937 (p. 1413).

be presided over by the prefect or his representative. In case agreement cannot be reached, the minutes of the meetings should give the subject of the dispute and the points to be submitted to arbitration.

The collective labor agreement must provide for the designation, by each of the parties to the agreement, of an arbitrator and alternates to act for the duration of the agreement. The arbitrators have full power in conflicts which have not been settled by the conciliation commission. Only French citizens enjoying full civil and political rights may be designated as arbitrators or umpires.

The collective agreement must provide for the establishment of a list of umpires agreed upon by the parties and including at least five names. If within the month following the conclusion or the renewal of an agreement, the parties have not been able to agree on the umpires, this list will be set up or completed by the first president of the court of appeal in the jurisdiction in which the conciliation commission has been assembled.

In default of a settlement by the two arbitrators within the period fixed by the agreement, an umpire is to be chosen by them or, if they cannot agree, by the prefect or the competent minister if the collective agreement is applicable in more than one Department or concerns more than 1,000 wage earners.

The law on collective agreements provides that an agreement may be made binding by decree upon all the employees in the occupations and regions within the scope of the agreements until the parties decide jointly to denounce, revise, or amend it.

The arbitrators and the umpire may deal only with the subjects covered by the minutes of the conciliation commission, or those which, resulting from events following the hearing, are the consequence of the dispute. Their decisions will be made on the basis of common law in collective disputes of a juridical nature. The arbitrator and umpire will decide in equity all other labor disputes, particularly those of an economic nature.

The procedure for conciliation and arbitration applies particularly in disputes arising as a consequence of decided changes in the cost of living and demands for the revision of wage clauses in the current agreements. Demand for revision may be made if the cost-of-living index varies at least 5 percent from the index on the date nearest to that on which wages were fixed. In this case wages, including family allowances, should be adjusted in proportion to the variation, unless it can be shown that this adjustment is incompatible with the economic conditions of the local, regional, or national branch of activity concerning which the demand for adjustment has been made. Wages will be fixed by the arbitrators if they are agreed, or, failing agreement, by the umpire at a rate compatible with the economic status of the industrial or commercial activity concerned. The official quarterly

cost-of-living index for a family of four in the department in which the conflict occurred will be used, unless the parties agree upon another index. The official index will be checked by a special committee headed by a high official of the State audit court. If there is no official index for the Department, the indexes for the adjoining Departments will be used.

Revision of wages and family allowances may not be made oftener than every 6 months, unless the increase in the index reaches 10 percent, in which case revision may be made as soon as the index is issued. When the demand for revision will affect contracts with the State or public authorities, the enterprises affected will request the public service concerned to be allowed to submit pertinent data.

The data relative to the disputed question considered necessary by the parties will be submitted to the arbitrators for both sides for discussion and, in case the dispute is referred to an umpire, will be debated before him. The arbitrators, the umpire, and experts, in case there are such, are bound by professional secrecy.

If one of the parties, or the arbitrators or the umpire, consider that the question is not of a collective character, a decision cannot be rendered until the question of competency has been decided The decision must be rendered within 3 days.

Decisions are binding and effective from the date on which the original request for conciliation was filed, but cannot be made retroactive beyond that date. The parties to a dispute must be notified of the arbitral decision by registered letter within 24 hours either by one of the arbitrators or by the umpire, and within the same period the decision must be filed with the clerk of the civil court. The filing of the decision gives it administrative force, subject only to cancelation by the high court of arbitration.

The awards by the arbitrator and umpire must state the grounds on which the decision is based. There is no appeal from the decision, and it cannot be made the subject of a lawsuit either before the Supreme Court of Appeal or the Council of State as a juridical body. The parties may, however, within 3 days of the date of the decision, appeal to the clerk of the high court of arbitration on the ground of incompetency, exceeding of power, or violation of the law. An appeal may be made on the same grounds within 8 days to the Minister of Labor, who, on the advice of the competent minister, if there is occasion, may in the public interest refer the decision to the high court of arbitration after consultation with the permanent committee of the National Economic Council. Appeal does not suspend the enforcement of arbitral awards and the decision must be given within 1 week of the date the appeal is made. If the decision which is the subject of the appeal relates to competence, the high court of arbitration must render a decision within 5 days.

The members of the high court of arbitration,[3] who are named by decree for a period of 2 years, include the vice president of the Council of State acting as president, the president of a section of the council, two councilors of state, and two high officials of the judiciary and two high officials of the State, either in active service or retired. In addition, when an appeal is made to the Council of State, two representatives each of the employers and the workers shall be appointed by the members of these groups in the National Economic Council. When a decision by an arbitrator or an umpire is annulled by the high court of arbitration a new umpire is appointed.

### *Procedure in Other Cases*

A decree of April 20, 1938,[4] provides for the conciliation and arbitration machinery to be used by industries which have not been able to agree upon methods of procedure or in which the procedure was not fixed in the collective agreement; disputes covering several enterprises which are not covered by the same agreement; collective agreements applying to different classes of personnel who may have separate interests in the same commercial or industrial enterprise; and disputes involving wage earners in public services operating under a concession, on the condition that the authority granting the concession approves.

The decree provides for conciliation commissions of two kinds—departmental and national. Depending upon the character of a dispute, whether local or national in scope, the services of one or the other commission are drawn upon. When a dispute is not settled within the industry, appeal is made to the prefect to invoke the services of the conciliation machinery, stating the points at issue. The prefect may submit a case to a departmental commission or, by virtue of his office or upon demand of one of the parties, submit the case to the competent minister, who after consultation with the Minister of Labor, may refer it to a national conciliation commission.

The departmental commission is presided over by the prefect or his representative and is composed of equal numbers of employers and employees. The number of members and their alternatives is fixed by the prefect. They are selected by the prefect under fixed regulations taking into account the importance of the industries and local conditions. The divisional inspector of labor participates in deliberations of the commission in a consultative capacity.

Each national commission is presided over by the competent minister or his representative. Employers and employees are equally represented under the same conditions as in departmental commissions.

[3] Journal Officiel de la République Française, April 5, 1938.
[4] Idem, April 21, 1938.

When an agreement is reached before either type of commission an official report is signed by the president and both parties to the dispute and sent to the Minister of Labor. Any complainant who fails to appear loses the suit. If agreement fails on all the points at issue, a report is made outlining the differences and is signed as above. The parties are requested to nominate, within 2 days, either one arbitrator each or a single arbitrator. If either party has not appeared he is invited by registered letter, to nominate an arbitrator. The delay allowed must be sufficient for receipt of the letter. If arbitrators are not named the competent minister (national commissions) or the prefect (departmental commissions) name arbitrators from lists established for this purpose. Each list of arbitrators should include at least 60 names and must be revised annually.

Decisions of arbitrators must be made as promptly as possible. Any points remaining unsettled must be stated in writing. In this case an umpire must be selected and if agreement is not then reached it must be so stated in the report which is sent to the appropriate official. In such cases the competent minister names the umpire.

If the question of competency of the commissions is carried to the high court of arbitration, no interruption is permitted in the deliberations of such commissions.

This procedure applies to cases arising in the public services only when special machinery is not available.

# *Cooperation*

## CREDIT UNIONS OF EMPLOYEES IN VARIOUS INDUSTRIES, 1936

THE PRINCIPLE of open membership is one of the main tenets of Rochdale cooperation. By the very nature of credit-union operation, however, this principle has to be modified somewhat in credit cooperatives. In order to insure the safety of loans made, it is essential that the members know one another and thus be able to judge the trustworthiness of those who apply for loans. For this reason it is usually required by the statutes under which credit unions operate that the organizations shall be formed among persons having some common bond of employment, religious faith, association, etc., and that the membership shall be limited to persons within that group. Within this field, membership is open to all trustworthy persons.

One of the questions asked of credit associations by the Bureau of Labor Statistics in its survey [1] was whether there was any limitation on membership and if so what the limitation was. Slightly over 4,000 associations reported on this point. These had a combined membership of over 865,000 and made loans in 1936 aggregating nearly $73,000,000.

Some 61 percent of these associations had been formed among employees of industrial businesses, and not quite one-fourth were organizations whose membership was restricted to public employees. The earliest credit unions to be formed among public employees, it may be noted, were those of postal employees; the first of these was started in 1923.

The largest groups of credit unions were reported in the manufacturing industries, the public utilities, and among Federal employees. There were nearly 200 associations among railroad employees, and slightly more than that number among employees of petroleum associations.

There were 78 credit unions formed from among the employees and members of other cooperative associations. Consumers' cooperatives are becoming increasingly interested in cooperative credit. Credit unions are especially valuable in connection with store associations operating on a strictly cash basis. Store members who are

[1] Summary statistics of credit union operations, by States, for 1936 were given in the April 1938 issue of the Monthly Labor Review (p. 878).

unable to pay for the groceries and other necessaries obtainable at the store can borrow from the credit union. One cooperative leader who is strongly in favor of credit unions for cooperators points out that to expect the store association to extend credit is to expect it to act as banker—a function which it was not intended to perform.

## *Membership*

The number of associations reporting as to their field of membership and the number of members in each industrial or other group are shown in the following table:

TABLE 1.—*Distribution of Members of Credit Unions, by Field of Membership, 1936*

| Field of membership | Total number of credit unions reporting | Membership | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | Associations reporting | Members | Average per association |
| All fields of membership | 4,034 | 3,921 | 865,172 | 221 |
| Employees of specified company | 2,453 | 2,390 | 578,849 | 242 |
| Coal mining | 1 | 1 | 281 | 281 |
| Public utilities | 526 | 506 | 126,228 | 249 |
| Telephone and telegraph | 99 | 94 | 28,266 | 301 |
| Electric light and power, water, and gas | 172 | 163 | 41,404 | 254 |
| Steam railroads | 196 | 192 | 40,995 | 214 |
| Street railways and buses | 36 | 34 | 8,525 | 251 |
| Other | 23 | 23 | 7,038 | 306 |
| Trade—wholesale and retail | 195 | 192 | 49,956 | 260 |
| Manufacturing | 729 | 712 | 212,003 | 298 |
| Automobiles | 22 | 20 | 5,191 | 260 |
| Food products | 148 | 144 | 29,896 | 207 |
| Machinery | 80 | 79 | 37,901 | 480 |
| Metals and metal products | 163 | 160 | 53,056 | 332 |
| Paper and paper products | 48 | 47 | 8,159 | 173 |
| Rubber and rubber products | 12 | 12 | 2,087 | 174 |
| Shoes | 22 | 22 | 4,800 | 218 |
| Textiles and textile products | 57 | 55 | 18,199 | 331 |
| Miscellaneous | 177 | 173 | 52,714 | 305 |
| Hotels | 31 | 31 | 3,494 | 112 |
| Laundries and dyeing and cleaning | 16 | 16 | 1,859 | 116 |
| Banks | 4 | 4 | 272 | 68 |
| Brokerage | 1 | 1 | 69 | 69 |
| Insurance | 43 | 43 | 6,604 | 154 |
| Building construction | 21 | 21 | 3,657 | 174 |
| Loan companies | 2 | 2 | 600 | 300 |
| Printing and publishing | 126 | 125 | 19,221 | 154 |
| Slaughtering and meat packing | 144 | 141 | 43,246 | 307 |
| Petroleum products | 234 | 229 | 47,661 | 208 |
| Cooperative associations [1] | 78 | 77 | 6,464 | 84 |
| Industrial company not specified | 81 | 75 | 16,338 | 218 |
| Miscellaneous | 221 | 214 | 40,896 | 191 |
| Employees of specified organizations | 147 | 139 | 16,205 | 117 |
| Clubs | 16 | 15 | 2,426 | 162 |
| Colleges or universities | 16 | 16 | 1,787 | 112 |
| Farm organizations | 37 | 32 | 2,981 | 93 |
| Fraternal orders | 72 | 72 | 8,517 | 118 |
| Hospitals or sanitariums | 6 | 4 | 494 | 124 |
| Public employees | 991 | 970 | 190,948 | 197 |
| Federal | 546 | 534 | 111,565 | 207 |
| State | 55 | 55 | 11,644 | 212 |
| County or municipal | 390 | 381 | 67,739 | 178 |
| Firemen | 28 | 27 | 3,712 | 139 |
| Police | 18 | 17 | 3,389 | 199 |
| Teachers and other school | 216 | 211 | 30,110 | 143 |
| Other | 128 | 126 | 30,528 | 242 |
| Specified occupation | 7 | 6 | 2,193 | 365 |
| Members of specified labor organization | 66 | 63 | 11,343 | 180 |
| Specified nationality | 16 | 16 | 4,179 | 261 |
| Residents of specified locality | 130 | 126 | 27,738 | 220 |
| Residents of specified locality and members of specified religious sect or church | 94 | 89 | 10,115 | 114 |
| Professional and other self-employed: | | | | |
| Dentists | 2 | 2 | 124 | 62 |
| Meat dealers | 4 | 4 | 984 | 246 |
| No restrictions of any kind | 124 | 116 | 22,494 | 194 |

[1] Includes organizations open to members as well as employees of cooperative associations.

The largest associations, in point of average number of members, were those in the machinery, telephone and telegraph, metal, textile, loan, and slaughtering and meat-packing industries, and in the credit unions restricting membership to a specified occupation. All of these groups had average memberships of 300 or more per association.

A combined membership of over 50,000 was reported by metal-products, Federal employees', and municipal employees' credit unions.

## *Loans in 1936*

The business operations of the various types of associations in 1936 are shown in the following table:

TABLE 2.—*Business Operations of Credit Unions of Specified Membership, 1936*

| Field of membership | Number of loans made | | Loans made during year | | Loans outstanding at end of year | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Associations reporting | Loans | Associations reporting | Amount | Associations reporting | Amount |
| All fields of membership | 3,681 | 704,032 | 3,568 | $72,866,792 | 3,872 | $42,101,688 |
| Employees of specified company | 2,271 | 489,833 | 2,130 | 42,595,218 | 2,386 | 22,597,695 |
| Coal mining | 1 | 500 | 1 | 45,000 | 1 | 13,000 |
| Public utilities | 488 | 103,442 | 478 | 9,608,693 | 515 | 5,711,858 |
| Telephone and telegraph | 89 | 20,861 | 91 | 2,309,045 | 97 | 1,507,765 |
| Electric light and power, water, and gas | 160 | 32,071 | 158 | 2,593,958 | 170 | 1,515,923 |
| Steam railroads | 185 | 37,393 | 175 | 3,745,840 | 191 | 2,221,836 |
| Street railways and buses | 32 | 7,665 | 32 | 575,205 | 35 | 306,275 |
| Other | 22 | 5,452 | 22 | 384,645 | 22 | 160,059 |
| Trade—wholesale and retail | 184 | 42,631 | 184 | 3,160,057 | 191 | 1,405,586 |
| Manufacturing | 681 | 181,966 | 663 | 15,004,515 | 709 | 7,208,055 |
| Automobiles | 21 | 4,308 | 21 | 286,939 | 21 | 117,491 |
| Food products | 140 | 28,429 | 140 | 2,682,210 | 146 | 1,400,406 |
| Machinery | 76 | 28,106 | 70 | 2,239,885 | 80 | 1,130,394 |
| Metals and metal products | 156 | 46,798 | 155 | 4,058,926 | 161 | 1,956,784 |
| Paper and paper products | 45 | 7,440 | 33 | 541,435 | 47 | 285,924 |
| Rubber and rubber products | 12 | 1,342 | 12 | 75,455 | 12 | 32,229 |
| Shoes | 20 | 3,765 | 15 | 219,889 | 22 | 174,536 |
| Textiles and textile products | 47 | 16,281 | 47 | 1,215,672 | 48 | 547,498 |
| Miscellaneous | 164 | 45,497 | 170 | 3,684,104 | 172 | 1,562,793 |
| Hotels | 29 | 3,373 | 30 | 173,900 | 31 | 62,079 |
| Laundries and dyeing and cleaning | 14 | 1,456 | 15 | 99,092 | 14 | 41,366 |
| Banks | 4 | 482 | 4 | 24,136 | 4 | 10,096 |
| Brokerage | 1 | 12 | 1 | 545 | 1 | 797 |
| Insurance | 41 | 5,147 | 41 | 493,828 | 42 | 257,068 |
| Building construction | 19 | 2,738 | 20 | 136,018 | 21 | 63,146 |
| Loan companies | 2 | 644 | 2 | 68,842 | 2 | 30,494 |
| Printing and publishing | 116 | 22,019 | 113 | 1,976,176 | 125 | 946,699 |
| Slaughtering and meat packing | 137 | 44,151 | 136 | 3,880,872 | 142 | 2,191,722 |
| Petroleum products | 222 | 33,124 | 224 | 2,884,660 | 229 | 1,502,376 |
| Cooperative associations [1] | 70 | 2,559 | 54 | 350,845 | 71 | 227,864 |
| Industrial company not specified | 67 | 13,873 | 54 | 876,606 | 77 | 563,999 |
| Miscellaneous | 195 | 31,716 | 110 | 3,811,433 | 211 | 2,361,490 |
| Employees of specified organizations | 121 | 7,604 | 129 | 1,305,547 | 131 | 744,570 |
| Clubs | 13 | 1,359 | 15 | 340,767 | 16 | 184,892 |
| Colleges or universities | 15 | 804 | 13 | 94,930 | 13 | 79,693 |
| Farm organizations | 27 | 1,404 | 29 | 204,466 | 30 | 118,329 |
| Fraternal orders | 62 | 3,630 | 67 | 638,093 | 67 | 349,118 |
| Hospitals or sanitariums | 4 | 407 | 5 | 27,291 | 5 | 12,538 |
| Public employees | 916 | 153,052 | 922 | 20,585,671 | 957 | 13,556,215 |
| Federal | 516 | 103,264 | 520 | 12,677,219 | 534 | 8,317,304 |
| State | 53 | 9,068 | 52 | 860,235 | 54 | 452,008 |
| County or municipal | 347 | 40,720 | 350 | 7,048,217 | 369 | 4,786,903 |
| Firemen | 23 | 2,389 | 24 | 425,473 | 27 | 304,522 |
| Police | 17 | 4,097 | 16 | 823,178 | 18 | 423,715 |
| Teachers and other school | 194 | 14,802 | 197 | 2,904,363 | 201 | 2,026,663 |
| Other | 113 | 19,432 | 113 | 2,895,203 | 123 | 2,032,003 |

[1] Includes organizations open to members as well as employees of cooperative associations.

TABLE 2.—*Business Operations of Credit Unions of Specified Membership, 1936*—Contd.

| Field of membership | Number of loans made | | Loans made during year | | Loans outstanding at end of year | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Associations reporting | Loans | Associations reporting | Amount | Associations reporting | Amount |
| Specified occupation | 7 | 1,206 | 5 | $137,403 | 7 | $94,885 |
| Members of specified labor organization | 59 | 8,502 | 62 | 1,063,261 | 64 | 634,067 |
| Specified nationality | 12 | 1,941 | 13 | 705,572 | 14 | 411,523 |
| Residents of specified locality | 104 | 18,182 | 114 | 3,158,141 | 114 | 2,169,391 |
| Residents of specified locality and members of specified religious sect or church | 79 | 3,535 | 71 | 620,203 | 84 | 472,763 |
| Professional and other self-employed: | | | | | | |
| Dentists | 2 | 77 | 2 | 13,371 | 2 | 7,210 |
| Meat dealers | 3 | 1,297 | 3 | 125,213 | 3 | 55,956 |
| No restrictions | 107 | 18,803 | 117 | 2,557,192 | 110 | 1,357,413 |

## *Dividends Paid*

Credit unions practice the return of dividends, not on patronage (i. e., on amounts paid in interest by borrowers) but on share capital. The 2,489 organizations in the various membership fields for which data are available returned total dividends amounting to $1,596,000, as shown in the following table:

TABLE 3.—*Dividends Returned by Credit Unions of Specified Membership, 1936*

| Field of membership | Associations reporting | Amount | Field of membership | Associations reporting | Amount |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| All fields of membership | 2,489 | $1,595,745 | Employees of specified company—Continued. | | |
| Employees of specified company | 1,470 | 812,202 | Slaughtering and meat packing | 118 | $79,196 |
| Coal mining | 1 | 244 | Petroleum products | 156 | 44,494 |
| Public utilities | 378 | 245,276 | Cooperative associations [1] | 24 | 5,102 |
| Telephone and telegraph | 73 | 47,503 | Industrial company not specified | 33 | 18,644 |
| Electric light and power, water, and gas | 142 | 62,751 | Miscellaneous | 84 | 80,890 |
| Steam railroads | 128 | 119,242 | Employees of specified organizations | 81 | 24,572 |
| Street railways and buses | 18 | 9,569 | Clubs | 14 | 4,083 |
| Other | 17 | 6,211 | Colleges or universities | 8 | 1,558 |
| Trade—wholesale and retail | 119 | 43,824 | Farm organizations | 21 | 7,082 |
| Manufacturing | 411 | 239,656 | Fraternal orders | 34 | 11,564 |
| Automobiles | 13 | 3,519 | Hospitals or sanitariums | 4 | 285 |
| Food products | 98 | 48,734 | Public employees | 692 | 587,909 |
| Machinery | 39 | 30,612 | Federal | 420 | 396,117 |
| Metals and metal products | 98 | 75,571 | State | 38 | 14,971 |
| Paper and paper products | 20 | 10,102 | County or municipal | 234 | 176,821 |
| Rubber and rubber products | 6 | 1,559 | Firemen | 22 | 15,310 |
| Shoes | 11 | 6,307 | Police | 14 | 22,870 |
| Textiles and textile products | 21 | 10,459 | Teachers and other school | 121 | 73,337 |
| Miscellaneous | 105 | 52,793 | Other | 77 | 65,304 |
| Hotels | 12 | 1,909 | Specified occupation | 5 | 2,600 |
| Laundries and dyeing and cleaning | 8 | 1,165 | Members of specified labor organization | 43 | 21,111 |
| Banks | 3 | 316 | Specified nationality | 12 | 16,585 |
| Brokerage | | | Residents of specified locality | 59 | 64,442 |
| Insurance | 27 | 8,780 | Residents of specified locality and members of specified religious sect or church | 44 | 14,236 |
| Building construction | 14 | 1,359 | Professional and other self-employed: | | |
| Loan companies | 2 | 1,174 | Dentists | 1 | 204 |
| Printing and publishing | 80 | 40,173 | Meat dealers | 3 | 3,399 |
| | | | No restrictions | 79 | 48,485 |

[1] Includes organizations open to members as well as employees of cooperative associations.

## *Financial Data*

The share capital, total assets, and net worth of the associations reporting are shown in the following table:

TABLE 4.—*Share Capital, Total Assets, and Net Worth of Credit Unions of Specified Membership, 1936*

| Field of membership | Share capital | | Total assets | | Net worth | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Associations reporting | Amount | Associations reporting | Amount | Associations reporting | Amount |
| All fields of membership | 3,932 | $45,732,361 | 3,893 | $56,007,481 | 3,418 | $40,775,464 |
| Employees of specified company | 2,394 | 26,425,465 | 2,386 | 30,524,631 | 2,248 | 22,563,152 |
| Coal mining | 1 | 20,792 | 1 | 21,716 | 1 | 923 |
| Public utilities | 516 | 6,033,799 | 510 | 7,239,260 | 475 | 5,545,367 |
| Telephone and telegraph | 95 | 1,552,555 | 95 | 2,058,967 | 89 | 1,098,494 |
| Electric light and power, water, and gas | 170 | 1,743,888 | 168 | 1,792,891 | 164 | 1,507,777 |
| Steam railroads | 192 | 2,164,298 | 188 | 2,722,927 | 166 | 2,336,147 |
| Street railways and buses | 36 | 323,088 | 36 | 358,019 | 34 | 319,817 |
| Other | 23 | 249,970 | 23 | 306,456 | 22 | 283,132 |
| Trade—wholesale and retail | 193 | 1,747,008 | 192 | 2,229,352 | 178 | 1,615,457 |
| Manufacturing | 708 | 8,438,901 | 711 | 9,394,113 | 657 | 7,365,093 |
| Automobiles | 20 | 148,027 | 20 | 165,999 | 19 | 91,594 |
| Food products | 142 | 1,488,234 | 142 | 1,732,662 | 137 | 1,271,235 |
| Machinery | 78 | 1,414,612 | 77 | 1,533,166 | 68 | 1,005,975 |
| Metals and metal products | 160 | 2,150,838 | 162 | 2,406,916 | 154 | 2,257,548 |
| Paper and paper products | 48 | 315,834 | 48 | 368,400 | 34 | 235,478 |
| Rubber and rubber products | 12 | 50,391 | 12 | 55,181 | 12 | 52,868 |
| Shoes | 22 | 202,648 | 22 | 219,877 | 15 | 113,275 |
| Textile and textile products | 54 | 587,291 | 55 | 664,254 | 51 | 344,882 |
| Miscellaneous | 172 | 2,081,026 | 173 | 2,247,658 | 167 | 1,992,238 |
| Hotels | 30 | 75,032 | 30 | 82,142 | 28 | 78,326 |
| Laundries and dyeing and cleaning | 15 | 55,227 | 15 | 61,905 | 14 | 41,910 |
| Banks | 4 | 11,037 | 4 | 12,138 | 4 | 11,676 |
| Brokerage | 1 | 968 | 1 | 1,076 | 1 | 1,014 |
| Insurance | 42 | 248,835 | 42 | 298,777 | 40 | 198,180 |
| Building construction | 21 | 73,652 | 21 | 78,689 | 21 | 72,292 |
| Loan companies | 2 | 35,945 | 2 | 54,177 | 2 | 48,870 |
| Printing and publishing | 124 | 1,142,587 | 124 | 1,342,511 | 107 | 920,397 |
| Slaughtering and meat packing | 140 | 2,171,827 | 141 | 2,412,677 | 127 | 1,933,310 |
| Petroleum products | 228 | 1,531,366 | 224 | 1,706,085 | 218 | 1,600,262 |
| Cooperative associations[1] | 77 | 248,048 | 76 | 281,161 | 53 | 157,206 |
| Industrial company not specified | 76 | 1,746,161 | 75 | 1,866,797 | 55 | 1,698,577 |
| Miscellaneous | 216 | 2,844,280 | 217 | 3,442,055 | 81 | 1,274,292 |
| Employees of specified organizations | 139 | 927,403 | 139 | 1,083,687 | 122 | 752,859 |
| Clubs | 16 | 175,718 | 16 | 234,215 | 13 | 129,398 |
| Colleges or universities | 15 | 79,252 | 15 | 89,913 | 12 | 35,578 |
| Farm organizations | 32 | 136,962 | 30 | 156,624 | 27 | 104,283 |
| Fraternal orders | 70 | 518,143 | 72 | 569,553 | 64 | 464,625 |
| Hospitals or sanitariums | 6 | 17,328 | 6 | 33,382 | 6 | 18,975 |
| Public employees | 971 | 13,407,363 | 956 | 16,406,029 | 887 | 13,061,871 |
| Federal | 536 | 8,482,857 | 528 | 10,207,078 | 504 | 8,871,870 |
| State | 54 | 494,563 | 54 | 509,179 | 46 | 225,303 |
| County or municipal | 381 | 4,429,943 | 374 | 5,689,772 | 337 | 3,964,698 |
| Firemen | 28 | 320,206 | 26 | 326,825 | 24 | 297,619 |
| Police | 18 | 397,911 | 18 | 453,172 | 15 | 436,381 |
| Teachers and other school | 208 | 1,893,168 | 206 | 2,534,539 | 192 | 1,976,401 |
| Other | 127 | 1,818,658 | 124 | 2,375,236 | 106 | 1,254,297 |
| Specified occupation | 7 | 97,218 | 6 | 83,439 | 3 | 64,920 |
| Members of specified labor organization | 63 | 604,144 | 63 | 825,976 | 61 | 461,155 |
| Specified nationality | 15 | 308,275 | 15 | 658,526 | 9 | 119,736 |
| Residents of specified locality | 128 | 1,935,851 | 125 | 3,340,558 | 113 | 1,919,248 |
| Residents of specified locality and members of specified religious sect or church | 90 | 528,162 | 87 | 756,627 | 63 | 490,933 |
| Professional and other self-employed: | | | | | | |
| Dentists | 2 | 7,745 | 2 | 8,390 | 2 | 8,225 |
| Meat dealers | 4 | 92,111 | 4 | 102,890 | 3 | 7,551 |
| No restrictions | 119 | 1,398,624 | 110 | 2,216,728 | 93 | 1,325,814 |

[1] Includes organizations open to members as well as employees of cooperative associations.

# *Housing*

## RENTS ESTABLISHED FOR P. W. A. HOUSING

AVERAGE monthly rentals per room, ranging from $2.40 for projects in the Virgin Islands to $6.77 for Cedar Springs Place in Dallas, Tex., were announced on May 1, 1938, for most of the low-rent housing projects initiated by the Housing Division of the Public Works Administration and transferred to the United States Housing Authority.[1] Rents had been established for all but seven of these housing developments at the time this information was released and the following table shows the location and names of the projects, with the average shelter rent per room, excluding service charge to cover heat, hot water, and power for light, cooking, and refrigeration. In computing rents [2] living rooms, dining rooms, kitchens, and bedrooms are each rated as one room; dining spaces provided as extensions to living rooms or kitchens, in addition to the minimum area required for such rooms, are counted as half rooms; and bathrooms, halls, closets, laundries, utility rooms, storage rooms, and community or recreation rooms are not considered in the calculation as to what constitutes a room.

The differences in the rentals charged are accounted for by numerous factors, of which some of the more important are land costs, condition of the site (i. e., whether vacant land or slum area requiring demolition of existing buildings), and character of dwellings constructed including materials used, height, and location.

The three projects renting at $2.40 per room per month are located in the Virgin Islands. Only three projects are rented at $3 and under $4 per room per month and these are all in South Carolina. The largest numbers of projects fall in the rental classes of $4 and under $5, and $5 and under $6. The seven low-cost housing projects renting at monthly rates in excess of $6 are located as follows: Atlanta, one; Cleveland, two; Dallas, one; New York, two; and Stamford, Conn., one.

[1] U. S. Department of the Interior. Housing Authority. Press release 22639H.
[2] Idem, press release 14479H. Bull. No. 2 on Policy and Procedure.

*Average Rent per Room Excluding Service Charge in P. W. A. Housing Projects, May 1, 1938*

| Location and name of project | Average monthly rent per room | Location and name of project | Average monthly rent per room |
|---|---|---|---|
| Atlanta, Ga.: | | Lackawanna, N. Y., Baker Homes | [1] |
| Techwood Homes | $6.03 | Lexington, Ky.: | |
| University Homes | 5.87 | Blue Grass Park, Aspendale | $4.98 |
| Atlantic City, N. J.: Stanley S. Holmes Village | 5.90 | Louisville, Ky.: | |
| Birmingham, Ala.: Smithfield Court | 4.36 | La Salle Place | 4.36 |
| Boston, Mass.: Old Harbor Village | 4.88 | College Court | 4.44 |
| Buffalo, N. Y.: Kenfield | 5.07 | Memphis, Tenn.: | |
| Cambridge, Mass.: New Towne Court | 4.63 | Dixie Homes | 4.42 |
| Camden, N. J.: Westfield Acres | 4.89 | Lauderdale Courts | 4.42 |
| Charleston, S. C.: | | Miami, Fla.: Liberty Square | 5.01 |
| Meeting St. Manor, Cooper River Court | 3.89 | Milwaukee, Wis.: Parklawn | 5.82 |
| Chicago, Ill.: | | Minneapolis, Minn.: Sumnerfield Homes | [1] |
| Jane Addams Houses | 5.39 | Montgomery, Ala.: | |
| Julia C. Lathrop Homes | 5.39 | Riverside Heights | 5.35 |
| Trumbull Park Homes | 5.39 | Wm. B. Paterson Courts | 3.82 |
| Cincinnati, Ohio: Laurel Homes | [1] | Nashville, Tenn.: | |
| Cleveland, Ohio: | | Cheatham Place | 4.83 |
| Cedar Central Apartments | 6.01 | Andrew Jackson Courts | 4.83 |
| Outhwaite Homes | 5.07 | New York, N. Y.: | |
| Lakeview Terrace | 6.19 | Williamsburg Houses | 6.52 |
| Columbia, S. C.: University Terrace: | | Harlem River Houses | 6.29 |
| Colored | 3.67 | Oklahoma City, Okla.: Will Rogers Courts | 5.73 |
| White | 5.40 | Omaha, Nebr.: Logan Fontenelle Homes | 4.66 |
| Dallas, Tex.: Cedar Springs Place | 6.77 | Philadelphia, Pa.: Hill Creek | 4.66 |
| Detroit, Mich.: | | Schenectady, N. Y. Schonowee Village | [1] |
| Brewster | [1] | Stamford, Conn.: Fairfield Court | 6.19 |
| Parkside | [1] | Toledo, Ohio: Brand Whitlock Homes | 5.03 |
| Enid, Okla.: Cherokee Terrace | 5.85 | Washington, D. C.: Langston | 5.40 |
| Evansville, Ind.: Lincoln Gardens | [1] | Wayne, Pa.: Highland Homes | 4.55 |
| Indianapolis, Ind.: Lockefield Garden Apartments | 4.35 | Virgin Islands: | |
| Jacksonville, Fla.: Durkeeville | 4.48 | Bassin Triangle | 2.40 |
| | | Marley Homes | 2.40 |
| | | H. H. Berg Homes | 2.40 |

[1] Not yet established.

## HOUSING IN DENMARK [3]

NEW residential construction in Denmark is carried on in large part by private industry but has been facilitated through Government aid and tax exemption in recent years. Building activity was at its peak in 1934 and 1935 and decreased in the 2 years following. The increase in building costs was an adverse factor and it is hoped that the placing of construction materials on the free list of imports and the general price declines will bring about a greater volume of building. Legislative measures are now under consideration whereby the Government would give further financial aid in order to secure better living conditions and to reduce unemployment of construction labor.

The greater proportion of new dwellings is being supplied in units of two or three rooms. As the average family has tended to decrease in size, the need for larger apartments is declining, but there is a special need for low-cost housing to take care of the very large families. Although the Government has taken action to prevent rent

[3] From report of E. Gjessing, American vice consul, Copenhagen, March 18, 1938.

increases commensurate with the rise in building costs, rents in Copenhagen went up 6.8 percent between 1935 and 1937, 15.3 percent in the suburbs, and from 2.2 to 7.8 percent in other parts of the country. Increases in urban population have resulted in a growing demand for city apartments. This demand has also been influenced by the growth in number of families, either with fewer or no children, and by a widespread desire for better housing.

About 110,000 apartment buildings were erected in the 6 years, 1932–37, and of this number 92,000 were built by private industry without assistance from the Government. The peak in new construction was reached in 1934 and 1935, when the totals were 23,195 and 22,939, respectively. Table 1 shows the number of apartment buildings constructed between 1932 and 1937.

TABLE 1.—*Number of Apartment Buildings Constructed in Denmark With and Without Government Assistance, 1932–37*

| Year | Erected by— | | | | | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Private industry | | Building societies | | Municipality or State | |
| | Without assistance | With assistance | Without assistance | With assistance | | |
| 1937 | 16,322 | 1,081 | 2 | 297 | 836 | 18,538 |
| 1936 | 15,925 | 1,615 | 42 | 298 | 266 | 18,146 |
| 1935 | 19,101 | 3,335 | ---------- | 249 | 254 | 22,939 |
| 1934 | 17,573 | 3,850 | ---------- | 575 | 1,197 | 23,195 |
| 1933 | 12,478 | 2,601 | 178 | 864 | 254 | 16,375 |
| 1932 | 10,579 | 1,021 | 428 | 375 | 667 | 13,070 |

Buildings erected in 1936 and 1937 were practically the same in number. In the latter year, of 18,538 built, 16,322 were undertaken by private industry and 2 by building societies. Government-aided buildings erected by private industry numbered 1,081, by building societies 297, and by municipality or State, 836. The total built by the municipality and State (836), was greater than in any year since 1934, when public authorities constructed 1,197 apartments.

Construction has been carried on more intensively in the suburbs of Copenhagen than in other parts of the country. In 1937 the number of new units in this suburban area totaled 20.3 per 100 persons in the population. The percentage of vacancies in the suburbs of Copenhagen at the time of the 1935 survey of apartment vacancies was 1.7, for Copenhagen it was 1.6, for provincial towns and their suburbs 1.8, and for rural districts 2.2.

The size of individual units in buildings constructed since 1931 is shown in table 2.

TABLE 2.—*Dwelling Units Constructed, by Size, 1931–37*

| Year | Dwellings of specified size | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 1 room | 2 rooms | 3 rooms | 4 rooms | 5 or more rooms | Total |
| 1937: | | | | | | |
| Number | 1,496 | 8,820 | 5,238 | 1,786 | 1,198 | 18,538 |
| Percent of total | 8.07 | 47.58 | 28.25 | 9.64 | 6.46 | 100.0 |
| 1936: | | | | | | |
| Number | 897 | 8,440 | 5,324 | 2,177 | 1,308 | 18,146 |
| Percent of total | 4.9 | 46.6 | 29.3 | 12.0 | 7.2 | 100.0 |
| 1935: | | | | | | |
| Number | 1,340 | 11,002 | 6,636 | 2,357 | 1,604 | 22,939 |
| Percent of total | 5.8 | 47.98 | 28.94 | 10.28 | 7.0 | 100.0 |
| 1934: | | | | | | |
| Number | 1,232 | 10,607 | 6,939 | 2,831 | 1,586 | 23,195 |
| Percent of total | 5.3 | 45.7 | 29.9 | 12.2 | 6.9 | 100.0 |
| 1933: | | | | | | |
| Number | 644 | 7,137 | 5,308 | 1,997 | 1,289 | 16,375 |
| Percent of total | 3.94 | 43.58 | 32.42 | 12.19 | 7.87 | 100.0 |
| 1932: | | | | | | |
| Number | 772 | 4,986 | 4,155 | 1,904 | 1,253 | 13,070 |
| Percent of total | 5.91 | 38.15 | 31.79 | 14.58 | 9.57 | 100.0 |
| 1931: | | | | | | |
| Number | 575 | 6,288 | 5,615 | 2,430 | 1,725 | 16,633 |
| Percent of total | 3.45 | 37.81 | 33.76 | 14.61 | 10.37 | 100.0 |

In the 7 years covered in table 2 the proportion of large apartments of five or more rooms declined from 10.37 percent of the total to 6.46 percent. One-room units have increased in the same period from 3.45 to 8.07 percent. This tendency to build more small dwelling units is in conformity with the reduction in size of families from 3.45 in 1916 to 2.90 in 1935.

New buildings are being constantly better equipped. Small modern apartments have been generally provided only since the termination of the World War. In 1921 only 10 percent of all apartments in Copenhagen had bathrooms, as compared with over 90 percent of those completed from 1931–37. As a consequence of widespread installation of baths in new buildings and those that were renovated, it was estimated that in 1935, 31 percent of all apartments in Copenhagen had sanitary improvements.

Rents in urban districts have increased noticeably, particularly in suburbs of Copenhagen and the larger provincial towns of more than 50,000 population. Average annual rents by locality and size of dwelling units are shown in table 3 for 1930, 1935, and 1937.

Rentals for one-room apartments have risen by 46.3 percent in the suburbs of Copenhagen from 1935 to 1937, but this rise is offset by the fact that a one-room apartment now frequently includes a kitchenette, a small servant's room, and bathroom, instead of being a single room such as was formally provided. In the urban districts outside of Copenhagen the increases in rent have been normal on the average, corresponding to the increases in building costs. Rents of large apartments have tended to rise less than those for smaller units. Based on building costs in 1914 as 100, the index for 1933 was 166 and by 1937 it had risen to 200.

TABLE 3.—*Average Annual Rent by Locality and Size of Dwelling Unit, 1930, 1935, and 1937*

| Locality and year | Rents (in kroner[1]) of dwellings of specified number of rooms | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 1 room | 2 rooms | 3 rooms | 4 rooms | 5 rooms | 6 rooms | Average, all sizes |
| Copenhagen: | | | | | | | |
| 1930 | 235 | 424 | 615 | 822 | 1,192 | 2,327 | 658 |
| 1935 | 411 | 568 | 747 | 890 | 1,132 | 1,561 | 733 |
| 1937 | 462 | 607 | 786 | 935 | 1,172 | 1,781 | 783 |
| Percentage increase, 1935–37 | 12.4 | 6.9 | 5.2 | 5.1 | 3.5 | 14.1 | 6.8 |
| Suburbs of Copenhagen: | | | | | | | |
| 1930 | 256 | 478 | 646 | 817 | 950 | 1,441 | 632 |
| 1935 | 285 | 469 | 632 | 877 | 1,082 | 1,595 | 652 |
| 1937 | 417 | 578 | 731 | 985 | 1,128 | 1,613 | 752 |
| Percentage increase, 1935–37 | 46.3 | 23.2 | 15.7 | 12.3 | 4.3 | 1.1 | 15.3 |
| Provincial towns: | | | | | | | |
| 1930 | 164 | 312 | 443 | 579 | 728 | 1,075 | 437 |
| 1935 | 203 | 366 | 497 | 642 | 809 | 1,192 | 496 |
| 1937 | 220 | 401 | 526 | 677 | 832 | 1,218 | 528 |
| Percentage increase 1935–37 | 8.4 | 9.6 | 5.8 | 5.5 | 2.8 | 2.2 | 6.5 |
| Suburbs of large provincial towns: | | | | | | | |
| 1930 | 164 | 314 | 439 | 525 | 612 | 918 | 414 |
| 1935 | 158 | 305 | 425 | 524 | 612 | 940 | 408 |
| 1937 | 181 | 315 | 446 | 568 | 698 | 1,133 | 440 |
| Percentage increase, 1935–37 | 14.6 | 3.3 | 4.9 | 8.4 | 12.4 | 20.5 | 7.8 |
| Semirural districts: | | | | | | | |
| 1930 | 143 | 271 | 365 | 447 | 552 | 780 | 353 |
| 1935 | 148 | 285 | 385 | 465 | 561 | 773 | 368 |
| 1937 | 143 | 288 | 400 | 478 | 562 | 795 | 376 |
| Percentage increase, 1935–37 | 3.4 | 1.1 | 3.9 | 2.8 | 0 | 2.8 | 2.2 |

[1] Average exchange rate of krone in 1937=22.1 cents.

To offset adverse factors the Government has enacted special legislation. By a law of 1933 communes were authorized to exempt new buildings from taxation. Although similar legislation had previously been passed in Copenhagen, the 1933 law helped greatly in stimulating building operations.

Loan practice has also been helpful. The Danish mutual credit associations grant loans up to 60 percent of the appraised value of the buildings on first mortgages. Mortgage associations grant additional loans of 15 percent on second mortgages. Persons taking such loans on their property become members of the association and obtain bonds for the value of their loans. The bonds are sold on the open market and the association members are jointly and separately responsible for them. In addition to the first and second mortgage a purchaser may obtain a third mortgage representing 5 to 10 percent of the sum he requires to erect a new building. Such mortgages were advanced by the Danish Government between 1933 and 1936 under legislation that expired at the end of 1936. In cases where builders avail themselves of all three mortgages, the remaining funds necessary to put up buildings represent only 15 to 20 percent of the appraised value.

## BRITISH BUILDING SOCIETIES, 1925 TO 1937

BRITISH building societies, which have furnished large amounts of capital to enable private industry to rehouse the population, showed

an increase in business during 1937, continuing the tendency of recent years. An analysis in the Economist [4] of returns covering 99 societies shows increases in assets, mortgages, shares, deposits, and a computed interest rate of 4.9 percent on mortgages, which is the same as in 1936 but substantially below other previous years. Since these 99 societies represent 84.5 percent of the total assets held by building societies, trends based on their returns are regarded as reflecting the general situation.

The Economist survey concludes that convenient mortgage facilities may have been as positive a business stimulus of late years as the favorable basic factors—rising incomes, cheap money, the demand for improved housing, and improved transportation. The scope of building-society business has been widened by the lowering of the cash-down payments on houses. With the possibilities of a lower volume of business, the management must look forward to a reduced demand for loans or enter the nonresidential property field with its special risks and problems. Although this is a long-term problem it should be faced, since large amounts loaned, during the boom especially, will be repaid to societies in future years. At present funds are flowing into societies at an increased rate, owing to the attractive interest return, notwithstanding that advance business is tending to slow down. In view of these conditions, the Economist believes there is need for the adoption of a unified business policy by the independently operated building societies of Great Britain.

Total assets of the 99 societies studied increased fourfold, from £136,876,400[5] to £598,555,500, in the 12 years between 1925 and 1937. Mortgage assets increased somewhat more rapidly, from £117,318,100 to £531,604,500. The growth of assets, mortgages, shares, and deposits is given in index numbers, based on 1925 as 100, for the years 1929 and 1932–37, in table 1. The relation of mortgages, shares, and deposits to assets is shown in percentages for each year.

TABLE 1.—*Index Numbers of Balance Sheet Returns, 1925–37*

[1925=100]

| Year | Index numbers (1925=100) | | | | Relation to total assets, of— | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Total assets | Mortgages | Shares | Deposits | Mortgages | Shares | Deposits |
| 1925 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 85.7 | 73.8 | 15.3 |
| 1929 | 189 | 187 | 211 | 142 | 84.7 | 82.3 | 11.5 |
| 1932 | 203 | 278 | 328 | 240 | 81.3 | 82.5 | 12.6 |
| 1933 | 311 | 303 | 346 | 300 | 83.6 | 82.1 | 14.8 |
| 1934 | 345 | 340 | 360 | 397 | 84.6 | 77.0 | 17.7 |
| 1935 | 371 | 378 | 375 | 472 | 87.3 | 74.5 | 19.5 |
| 1936 | 405 | 420 | 403 | 532 | 88.8 | 73.5 | 20.1 |
| 1937 | 437 | 453 | 434 | 578 | 88.8 | 73.2 | 20.3 |

[4] The Economist (London), April 23, 1938, pp. 190, 191: Building Society Outlook; supplement, Building Societies, pp. 3–15.

[5] Pound at par=$4.866.

Consistent and regular growth has characterized the total resources of these building societies. In each of several recent years they have increased by about one-third of the total amount held in 1925. Assets, outstanding mortgage advances, and the amount due to shareholders increased approximately four and one-half times between 1925 and 1937. In 1932 outstanding mortgages tended to increase more slowly, but this has not been repeated. Deposits have increased to an index of 578. This shows the influence of the period of cheap money. The proportion of funds in mortgages remained at 88.8 percent of total assets in 1936 and 1937 after a steady rise from the low of 81.3 percent in 1932. Other assets are largely in municipal and county securities, other investments, and cash.

Repayments represented 92.2 percent of new loans on mortgages in 1932. Since that year they have fallen as low as 76.5 percent (1934) but amounted to 85.9 percent in 1937. Advances on new mortgages made up 27.7 percent of the outstanding mortgages in 1934. This percentage dropped to 21.8 percent in 1937. The authors of the report state, however, that the recent decline in house construction has checked building-society business only in a moderate degree.

Average value of new mortgages has increased from £544 in 1929 to £580. It is difficult to estimate whether this is accounted for by increasing numbers of large mortgages or by other factors. If total mortgage assets are classified by £500 intervals, the proportion of the total under £500 is 46.6 for 1937 as compared with 40.6 in 1932. In this same period mortgage balances of £500 to £1,000 decreased from 42.8 to 39.2 percent and those of £1,000 to £3,000 from 11.1 to 7.0 percent. In the interval £3,000 to £5,000 the increase was from 2.0 to 2.2 percent, and above £5,000 from 3.1 to 5.0 percent. The average value of all outstanding mortgages, new and old, decreased from £313 in 1925 to £301 in 1937. The smallest average in the years surveyed was recorded in 1929 when it amounted to £266.

Interest rates have moved downward in recent years on shares, deposits, and mortgages, whereas the average rate in 1925 was 4.4 percent on shares, 3.9 percent on deposits, and 5.9 percent on mortgages, in 1937 the rates were 3.3, 2.7, and 4.9 percent, respectively.

The societies and the borrowers have benefited by the reductions in interest, and notwithstanding the changes made the societies are able to pay gross rates on shares and deposits that compare favorably with the return on comparable investments. Rates for new mortgage business have been reduced to a basic level of 4½ percent and some societies are reported to be prepared to advance loans on even more advantageous terms. Many societies have rebated interest to mortgage borrowers instead of reducing the rates.

# *Health and Industrial Hygiene*

## NEED FOR NATIONAL HEALTH PROGRAM

THE cost of illness and premature death in the United States amounts annually to about 10 billion dollars, according to a report by the Technical Committee on Medical Care, submitted to the Interdepartmental Committee to Coordinate Health and Welfare appointed by President Roosevelt in October 1936.[1] The estimated cost of illness and premature death includes the combined costs of health services and medical care, loss of wages through unemployment resulting from disability, and loss of potential future earnings through death. The committee estimated that on an average day of the year 4 million or more persons are disabled by illness, and each year 70 million sick persons lose more than 1 billion days from work or from their customary activities. Although these estimates indicate the economic loss resulting from sickness and premature death they do not show the incalculable social consequences of ill health.

The committee points out that it was appointed to assess the state of the Nation's health, to show what is being done in relation to what can be done, to determine what needs are not being met through current practices, and to outline proposals through which the national health may be improved. Because of the definite purpose for which it was appointed, the committee in its report deals principally with the negative side of the question, although it recognizes the brilliant advances which have been made in scientific knowledge, the notable improvements in education and the progress of research, and the contributions of individuals and associations in raising the standards of professional service. While conceding the great advances already made, it is stated in the report that enormous needs still prevail. The lack is found to consist not in inadequate knowledge but in inadequate funds. "The effective distribution and utilization of health and medical services," it is said, "requires a national plan for the economic application of our resources in maintaining and improving health."

In the present century notable progress in disease prevention has been made through the work of private physicians and dentists, public-

[1] United States. Interdepartmental Committee to Coordinate Health and Welfare Activities. Report of the Technical Committee on Medical Care: The Need for a National Health Program. Washington, 1938. The Technical Committee was composed of representatives of The U. S. Children's Bureau, The U. S. Public Health Service, and The Social Security Board.

health departments, and private organizations. Prominent among the achievements which may be cited are the practical elimination of yellow fever on this continent; the striking decline in deaths from typhoid fever and the diarrheal diseases (resulting from improvements in sanitation, control of water supplies, and the pasteurization of milk); and reduction of the mortality from tuberculosis and diphtheria. The progress made in the control of disease is shown by the downward trend in the death rate from 17.6 per 1,000 population in 1900 to 11.5 per 1,000 in 1936, which represented the saving of about three-quarters of a million lives in 1936 alone. Between 1900 and 1935, 12 years were added to the expectation of life at birth, but the saving of life has occurred chiefly among children and young adults and no significant increase in life expectancy has occurred among persons of middle and advanced age. Because our population is "aging" as a result of the combined effects of the declining birth rate, the decrease in childhood and early adult mortality, and the immigration of large numbers of adults in the first part of the present century, the lack of improvement in mortality at the older ages is particularly important. In general, mortality in the older age groups has not been declining, and increasing death rates are shown for such chronic diseases as cancer, diabetes, and diseases of the circulatory system and of the kidneys. To some extent, deaths from these diseases can be prevented and deferred and disability reduced, by early diagnosis and competent medical care, but there is great need for further extension of research into the causes and cures of such diseases as influenza, common colds, infantile paralysis, cancer, mental disorders, and rheumatism, as well as of the degenerative diseases.

## *Needs of Maternity and Infancy*

The study shows, it is stated, that the principal needs may be divided broadly into two classes, namely the needs relating to maternity, infancy, and childhood, and those relating to specific causes of sickness, disablement, and death not directly associated with childbearing or the hazards of early life.

With the increasing proportion of persons in the older age groups the conservation of maternal and child life is of the greatest importance if the proportion of persons in the productive ages necessary to an economically progressive nation is to be maintained. Figures are cited in the report showing that there is great and unnecessary waste of maternal and infant life and impairment of health among mothers and children—a large proportion of which, it is said, is preventable. Among children after the first year of life the probability of dying is less than in any age group throughout the entire life span, but there is a higher proportion of sickness in this group than in the later ages. Inadequate public-health and medical services retard control of the

communicable diseases and also the institution of preventive and curative measures for diseases which may cause crippling or leave a child permanently handicapped. Resources for medical care in hospitals, in convalescent homes, or in their own homes, for children suffering from acute illness, from chronic or crippling conditions, or from accidents, are still far from adequate, especially in rural areas and in small cities and towns.

### *Needs of Specific Diseases*

In addition to the special needs of maternity, infancy, and childhood, the unmet health-service needs among the remainder of the population are said to be great and diverse. In some instances the services needed apply to all economic levels, and in others particularly to persons of small means and to those without income. The types of services required vary from education in the hygiene of living to various types of specific treatments, nursing, and the services of specialists.

Among the specific diseases in which it is contended great improvement could be made is tuberculosis, in which earlier diagnosis would result in a large saving of life. It is estimated that tuberculosis deaths could be reduced 50 percent by health supervision of workers in occupations predisposing to the disease, by detection of incipient cases, and by provision of adequate medical and institutional care for tuberculosis patients in the early stages. As it is, the evidence indicates that a majority of cases are discovered after the disease is too far advanced for effective treatment.

Adequate early treatment of syphilitics would favorably affect the infant-mortality rate, would lessen the number of cases in which there are involvements of the heart and blood vessels and the nervous system, and would thus reduce the burden on institutional facilities.

Pneumonia, which is exceeded in importance as a cause of death only by the diseases of the heart, blood vessels, and kidneys, and by cancer, disables nearly 600,000 persons each year. By far the largest number of these cases are caused by the pneumococcus. A serum has been developed, which, if used in the types of cases for which the serum is suitable, would result in a large reduction in the mortality rate. Workers exposed to marked changes in temperature, inclement weather, poor ventilation, and a dusty atmosphere, have an excessive rate of mortality and disability from pneumonia; sickness and deaths from this cause could be reduced by health supervision of such workers and of their working conditions. Also, adequate clinic and nursing supervision of infants and preschool children on a community basis is an important means of preventing pneumonia in the ages in which mortality is highest. Such preventive services are said to be, at present, generally inadequate.

Malaria is a public-health problem, particularly in the South, where in some States it is a leading cause of death. The disability resulting from this disease also is a serious handicap to workers in the rural areas of the South. While much has been done to reduce the malaria problem in many areas, additional needs in this field are said to be the expansion of personnel of county health departments, and an increase in funds for such specific activities as ditching and control through use of larvicides.

It is to be expected that the upward trend of the death rate from the diseases which prevail in middle and old age—heart disease, nephritis, cancer, and diabetes—will continue with the continued aging of the population which is now in progress. Chronic disease was shown by the National Health Survey to account for 6 of the 10 days of incapacity from serious disabling illness experienced by the average person in a year. The costs of such illnesses present a serious burden in low-income and dependent groups unless aid is provided from public funds. Only a concerted attack on these diseases as recognized public-health problems, it is said, can hope to bring any reduction in the deaths and disability due to these causes.

One of the most urgent needs in a chronic-disease program is control of cancer, which caused 143,000 deaths in 1936 or more than 10 percent of all deaths, while approximately 400,000 persons are suffering from cancer at the present time. The public-health needs in this field, it is stated in the report, are the establishment of adequate diagnostic centers, education of the public and of physicians in the paramount importance of early diagnosis and treatment, and provision for treatment and hospitalization of the large proportion of persons who cannot pay for these specialized and expensive services.

Diabetes caused 30,000 deaths in 1936. It is considered that this toll could be much reduced and prolongation of life secured by the administration of insulin under a regulated regime. Diseases of the heart, blood vessels, and kidneys caused 581,000 deaths in 1936. A large proportion of these are the result of the aging process and for such cases the problem is to provide facilities and care to keep incapacitation and discomfort at a minimum. Many of these cases, however, are the result of earlier infections such as syphilis, acute rheumatic fever, the communicable diseases of childhood, or typhoid fever, and the solution of this problem, therefore, is to provide treatment when the infections occur in order to minimize the ill effects in later life.

Mental disease is one of the most serious problems in the country. About half a million persons, it is estimated, are in hospitals for mental diseases, and 75,000 additional persons are in institutions for the feeble-minded and epileptic. There are also about 900,000 mentally deficient persons outside of institutions, while an unestimated

number are suffering from milder forms of the psychoneuroses and of mental instability. More than twice as much hospital and institutional care is required for the mentally diseased and defective as for all other diseases combined, and approximately $150,000,000 of public funds, forming over one-fourth of all governmental expenditures for health and medical services, are expended annually in the operation and maintenance of these institutions. Increased hospital facilities and additional trained personnel are needed for the intensive treatment of acute and recoverable cases of mental disease, and it is recommended in the report that in all State governments a department or other agency should be set up under competent medical leadership to formulate and coordinate a program for the prevention of mental disease, and for its treatment and supervision.

An effective program of industrial hygiene is needed, not only for the prevention of industrial accidents and occupational diseases, but also to deal with working and other conditions which adversely affect the health and welfare of the workers. As a result of the stimulus given by the Social Security Act, there are now 22 States and four municipal departments of health which have taken steps to provide industrial health services.

### *Relation of Income to Health Needs and Service*

According to the National Health Survey, which covered a representative sample of the urban population, 40 percent of the persons canvassed were members of families with incomes of less than $1,000, 65 percent were in families with incomes under $1,500, and 80 percent were in families with incomes of less than $2,000; while about one-half of the group with incomes under $1,000 had been in receipt of relief at some time during 1935. These figures are fundamental in any consideration of national health, since they indicate the extent of the capacity to pay not only for food, shelter, and clothing, but also for medical care. In spite of the great progress in public health and the medical sciences, much of this progress is said to have little significance for the large part of the population who have small means and are unable to buy the necessary services when sickness strikes. This is a matter for grave concern in view of the fact that the sickness and mortality rates among the poor of our large cities are as high as the gross rates of 50 years ago. The infant death rate among the poorer families is much above that for the well-to-do, and although the tuberculosis death rate for the population as a whole has fallen from the leading cause of death to seventh place, among industrial workers and those exposed to special occupational hazards the rates are much in excess of those for the general population. Death rates measure only a fraction of the loss from sickness, since for every death there are 16 severe disabling illlnesses (i. e. those lasting 1 week or longer). Ac-

cording to a health survey made during the years 1928 to 1931, the annual days of disability per person ranged from 8.9 in families with incomes under $1,200 to 3.8 in families with incomes of $3,000 and over. The National Health Survey in 1935–36 [2] showed very much higher rates among the low-income groups for both number of cases and average number of days of incapacity. Unemployment and dependency are frequently the outcome of sickness among the lower-income groups. Study of the association of sickness and poverty shows that the economic status is at least as responsible for excessive sickness as the genetic factors. Since the rate of sickness is higher among the poor than among those in better economic circumstances it follows that the poor are more in need of health service.

The largest part of the burden of purchase of health service still remains with the individual, although Federal, State, and local governments pay an important part of the Nation's sickness bill. A comparison of expenditures in 1929 and 1936 shows that of a total expenditure of $3,660,000,000 in 1929, the sum of $2,890,000,000 was paid by patients themselves, the balance of $770,000,000 being paid by governments, by philanthropic individuals and organizations, and by industry, while in 1936 the corresponding figures were $3,210,000,000, $2,560,000,000, and $650,000,000. Although medical care is a professional service, it is still, with some important exceptions, an "economic commodity," which is purchased and paid for directly by the individual, and as a result the amount of medical care which can be obtained depends upon the individual's economic status. In some areas extensive provision has been made for free hospital care, and in such places the poor sometimes receive a greater amount of hospital care than do any except the rich, but this is only an exception which proves the rule that the amount of medical care received is dependent upon the person's ability to pay for it. A survey made in the years 1928 to 1931 showed that although there is more disabling sickness among persons in the low-income groups, the proportion who went through a year of life without professional care was more than three times as high among the poorest families as it was among the wealthiest.

The most acute need in the country at the present time is said to be more effective distribution of existing health services. The supply of physicians and private-duty nurses is regarded as approximately sufficient for the current demand, but public-health nursing has an undersupply of personnel, there are not enough dentists to meet the true need for dental services, and hospital facilities are insufficient to meet the full needs. Moreover, these facilities are not well distributed and in certain areas there is inadequate provision or even complete lack of hospital facilities and of medical and health personnel.

[2] See Monthly Labor Review, March 1938, (pp. 664-671).

In summing up the results of the study it is stated that:

As a nation, we are doing vastly less to prevent suffering and to conserve health and vitality than we know how to do through tried and tested methods. The committee is convinced that current activities are inadequate to assure the population of the United States such health of body and mind as they can and should have. Sanitary advance owes much to epidemics or threats of their approach, to outbreaks of contagious disease among school children, to floods and other disasters of the past; but we cannot permit the future of health services to continue to rest with the accidents of history. A good beginning has been made in more recent years toward carrying out health activities through well-planned and directed effort, but systematic warfare against disease on a broad front is long overdue. The committee finds there is need and occasion now for the development of a national health program.

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## THE NEGRO'S HANDICAPS AS A WAGE EARNER IN NEW YORK STATE

THE OBSTACLES confronting Negro wage earners in their struggle for a more secure economic foothold are described in the report of the Temporary Commission on the Condition of the Urban Colored Population of New York State, created under an act of June 3, 1937. According to this report,[1] some of the conditions disclosed have existed over a long period and can be corrected only gradually, others could be grappled with immediately through legislative action and administrative policies; such action is the responsibility of the Senate and Assembly of the New York Legislature and should be regarded by them as "a matter of emergency importance."

The commission points out that its study does not represent an exhaustive investigation of the conditions covered. The preliminary survey upon which the findings are based has, however, revealed specific situations which are of sufficient gravity to call for additional detailed study. It is emphasized that "Despite a frequently avowed intention by the Government and the people of the State to accord to all constituent groups equal opportunity to share in the rights and privileges of citizenship, this intention has not been achieved with respect to the colored population."

### *Findings of Commission*

The commission submits to the legislature the following facts and conclusions:

1. Between 1910 and 1930 the colored population of New York State increased from 134,191 to 412,814, and according to an authoritative estimate the present figure is more than 500,000.

2. One-half million people in a State cannot be neglected without grave danger to the welfare and safety of that State.

3. The economic insecurity of the colored population in New York State at present is more than ordinarily serious. Equal opportunities for employment have never been accorded the race either in industry,

[1] New York. Report of the New York State Temporary Commission on the Condition of the Urban Colored Population to the Legislature of the State of New York, Albany, 1938. (Legislative document, 1938, No. 63.)

commerce, or the public utilities, and consequently unemployment has been disproportionately severe among this group of citizens.

4. The State itself cannot escape criticism with reference to its policies in the employment of Negro applicants for jobs.

5. As an outcome of these discriminations the great majority of Negro workers are confined to the field of unskilled labor and marginal types of employment.

6. The income status of the Negro population is indicated by conditions in New York City, where the average income earned by the poorer half of the colored families is less than 50 percent of that of the poorer half of the white people.

7. The average Negro family's income in New York State is not sufficient for the maintenance of a healthful and decent standard of living.

8. Low income, combined with the public acceptance of residential segregation, has usually restricted the Negro population to certain districts in each community.

9. These restrictions have resulted in a dearth of housing for the colored people, have increased rents beyond reasonable figures, and above those paid by white people for similar shelter. As an outcome, many colored families have been obliged against their will to occupy dwellings not fit for human habitation.

10. Community bitterness between white and colored groups is an outgrowth of low earnings and bad housing, which are also responsible for an increase in delinquency and crime and the spread of disease. The result has been a huge tax burden borne by the entire population.

11. State legislation previously passed has frequently been inadequate to remedy these conditions. Public utilities, prohibited by a law of 1933 from discriminating against job seekers because of race or creed, "are found to have made no provisions against occurrence of such discrimination, and at least one admits the present continuance of discriminatory policies."

12. The law which presumably protects applicants in quest of employment under public-works contracts is found to have no enforcement machinery.

13. The employment procedures of several of the New York State departments, which are prohibited by law from discriminating between races in the public service, "are found open to serious question of discrimination against Negro citizens."

14. The law can thus be violated because the statutes provide no adequate procedure through which complaints can be made and redress of grievances secured.

15. The remedies for these and similar evils come clearly within the jurisdiction of the State Legislature.

16. The commission "has been impressed again and again by the reluctance of civic leaders to remedy unfavorable conditions affecting the colored population and by the apparent indifference of certain public officials toward their existence. There is failure to realize either the serious nature of the problem and its importance to the general welfare or the fact that the problem is State-wide in its implications and not confined to special suburban or metropolitan areas."

### *Recommendations of Commission*

The commission makes the following recommendations for specific legislative action:

(*a*) Amendment of the Labor Relations Act to eliminate from its protection unions desiring to bargain only for certain racial or religious groups of workers and at the same time refusing other groups membership privileges or employment opportunities.

(*b*) The buttressing of the present provisions of the law prohibiting racial discriminations in employment by contractors who have contracts for State or public works and by public utilities, and stipulating in the case of public utilities the setting up of formal procedures for selecting and promoting employees, regardless of race, color, or creeds.

(*c*) The prohibition of any kind of racial or religious discrimination in public employment and the establishment of procedures for investigating and rectifying discriminations of this character.

(*d*) The amendment of the civil service law, by making it obligatory for appointment officers who may pass over an eligible applicant in favor of a lower ranking eligible applicant to make sworn certification of the reasons for such action.

(*e*) Provision for the extension to all cities in the State of formalized procedures in selecting teachers in the public schools, such as are at present in force in New York City and Buffalo.

(*f*) The regulation of contracts of public utilities with their employees, to prevent a labor union which has a closed-shop contract with a utility from discriminating against members or applicants for membership.

(*g*) Extension of authorization to cities and villages, in which certain racial groups are not allowed access to available housing, to acquire dwellings to be rented on equal terms to all the inhabitants of New York State.

(*h*) The regulation of the procedure for admission to public-education institutions, in order to prevent qualified candidates from being excluded by reason of race, color, or creed.

(*i*) The supplementing of present statutory provisions drafted with a view to insuring to all persons equal facilities and privileges in places of public accommodation, by providing that the licenses of any such

places be suspended or revoked if these equal facilities or privileges are denied.

In submitting the preceding recommendations the commission reports that it is aware of the need for State-wide action beyond that which legislation alone can accomplish. Laws can establish the pattern for the improvement of a community but they attain their maximum effectiveness only with the backing of an aroused public opinion which recognizes their significance. The commission expresses the hope that "thoughtful civic leaders will give consideration to the problems outlined above and the legislative proposals made for their correction, and will lend effective influence to arouse the necessary public support."

### *Fields for Further Investigation*

Pointing out that the commission has concentrated its attention upon the most exigent problems of employment and housing and the resultant social and economic factors, that body states that it has been plainly impossible to make a thorough survey of the numerous fields in which serious disability of the colored people of the State is evident.

Investigation is needed in the important field of finance, credit and savings. Negro communities have been preyed upon by the financially unscrupulous. The commission has in its files records of cases of illegal and inhumane action on the part of credit, installment-purchase, and loan companies, indicating a heavy proportion of trickery, which of course takes a high financial toll among Negroes. The Legal Aid Society of New York City calls attention to the frequency of Negro cases among the complaints against small insurance and disability companies.

Other injustices are reported by Negro citizens and organizations having need of bank loans or small credit facilities. Banks frequently require of Negro borrowers collateral exceeding that required of white borrowers under identical circumstances. Negro business men state that neighborhood banks are unfriendly to Negro business, to the advantage of white business competitors in the same district.

There is substantial evidence, moreover, that discrimination against Negro buyers of life insurance policies is still common, notwithstanding the legislative enactment of 1935 (Insurance Law, sec. 90) forbidding discriminatory insurance rates based upon the race of the policyholder.

In Buffalo, Negro auto owners have difficulty in getting low insurance. Of 10 companies replying to the commission's inquiry on the subject, 9 reported that under no circumstances did they carry Negro insurance.

The commission also reports on the apparent existence of "a strong undercurrent of feeling that, in the administration of justice in the maintenance of law and order, police forces and the courts of the

State are not always free from racial discrimination." Cursory examination of police records in some districts indicated that the proportion of arrests without subsequent conviction is apparently much higher in Negro sections than in white sections, which tends to prove that the complaints of Negroes that they are arrested on less provocation than whites are not without factual foundation.

In the opinion of the commission, careful study should also be made of the administration of public relief. The personnel of many relief administrations includes no Negroes, and statements are reiterated to the effect that relief is unfairly denied Negro applicants or inequitably administered. These allegations, together with the fact that the State has taken upon itself the administration of this public service, make it necessary that past and present policies and practices in both the smaller and larger population centers be carefully investigated.

# *Labor Involved in Industrial Production*

## LABOR REQUIREMENTS IN PRODUCTION AND DISTRIBUTION OF PLUMBING AND HEATING SUPPLIES [1]

By BERNARD H. TOPKIS, *of the Bureau of Labor Statistics*

PLUMBING and heating supplies account for a large percentage of the total cost of modern buildings. Many workers are needed at a construction site for the installation of heating systems and bathroom and kitchen equipment. In addition to this labor at the site many man-hours of work are required for the production and distribution of the plumbing and heating equipment used. The production of bathtubs, sinks, lavatories, boilers, furnaces, radiators, and other supplies involves labor away from the site in mines, forests, factories, and transportation agencies.

Direct labor at the site of construction is readily ascertained from the pay-roll records of general contractors and subcontractors. Measurements of the labor created indirectly, i. e., the labor required to produce and distribute building materials, are more difficult to make. In order to estimate the man-hours of labor created in the production and transportation of the principal materials used at the site of construction, the Bureau of Labor Statistics is making a series of studies of labor requirements. The present study, the sixth in the series,[2] analyzes the labor requirements in the production and distribution of plumbing and heating supplies. The data are for the year 1935.

The detailed results of this study are presented in a separate publication of the Bureau of Labor Statistics (Serial No. R 733). A very brief summary of that report is given below.

### *Importance of Industry*

The principal supplies used in plumbing and heating installations are enameled plumbing fixtures such as bathtubs, lavatories, and

[1] Prepared under the direction of Herman B. Byer, chief of the Division of Construction and Public Employment.

[2] For previous articles in this series see Monthly Labor Review, May 1935, p. 1155 (steel manufacture); March 1936, p. 564 (cement production); May 1937, p. 1136 (lumber production); October 1937, p. 846 (rail transportation of construction materials); December 1937, p. 1391 (clay products).

kitchen sinks; vitreous-china plumbing fixtures such as bowls, tanks, and lavatories; plumbing brass such as nickel- and chromium-plated faucets, traps, and showerheads; cast-iron and steel boilers,[3] radiators, and furnaces; screwed black cast-iron and malleable-iron fittings such as elbows, tees, nipples, and unions; and brass radiator valves and water-gate valves.

In 1935, according to the United States Census of Manufactures, there were 252 establishments in the United States manufacturing plumbing supplies (exclusive of vitreous-china ware) valued at $5,000 or more per year, 834 plants producing heating supplies worth $5,000 or more per year, and 37 firms producing vitreous-china plumbing fixtures valued at $5,000 or more per year. These establishments manufactured $75,631,000 worth of plumbing supplies and $297,364,000 worth of heating equipment in 1935.

### *Total Man-Hours, All Operations*

The total labor involved in 1 ton of cast-iron boilers, rough-casting weight, exclusive of steel jackets is 81.3 man-hours, and for boilers with steel jackets 96.1 man-hours. Cast-iron radiators accounted for 190.1 man-hours per 1,000 feet; cast-iron furnaces, 80.9 man-hours per ton, rough-casting weight; and steel boilers with jackets, 150.5 man-hours per ton. One ton, rough-casting weight, of all kinds of cast-iron enameled plumbing ware required 134.4 man-hours per ton; recess bathtubs, 115.5 man-hours per ton; kitchen sinks, 181.8 man-hours per ton; and lavatories, 158.2 man-hours per ton. A ton of all kinds of vitreous-china plumbing ware required 156.0 man-hours; a ton of china bowls, 179.1 man-hours; china lavatories, 167.8 man-hours; and tanks with covers, 132.5 man-hours per ton. Plumbing brass such as chromium-plated spigots, shower heads, and traps required 39.7 man-hours per 100 pounds, rough-casting weight; 1,000 screwed black cast-iron fittings ½ to 1¼ inches in diameter, 46.2 man-hours; 1,000 screwed black malleable-iron fittings of the same sizes, 50.5 man-hours; 100 brass radiator valves ½ to 1¼ inches in diameter, 63.5 man-hours; and 100 brass water-gate valves of same diameters, 56.6 man-hours.

The total labor for larger fittings and valves can be estimated on the basis of weight. One thousand screwed black cast-iron fittings or malleable-iron fittings 1¼ to 3 inches in diameter weigh 4.5 times as much as those of ½ to 1¼ inches in diameter; and 100 brass water-gate valves 1¼ to 3 inches in diameter, 5.4 times as much as the smaller sizes. Applying these ratios to the man-hours required for the production and transportation of raw materials, for selling and administration, and for transportation to the site of construction of

[3] This study covered only those types of steel boilers used in residential construction.

the smaller sizes, and using the man-hours previously determined for manufacturing, it is estimated that 1,000 screwed black cast-iron fittings 1¼ to 3 inches in diameter involved 204.4 man-hours; 1,000 screwed black malleable-iron fittings 1¼ to 3 inches in diameter, 223.9 man-hours; and 100 brass water-gate valves 1¼ to 3 inches in diameter, 217.5 man-hours.

A summary of the labor requirements for producing and distributing plumbing and heating supplies is shown in table 1.

TABLE 1.—*Summary of Man-Hours Required to Produce and Distribute Plumbing and Heating Supplies*

| Product | Unit | Number of man-hours required | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | All operations | Raw material production | Transportation of raw material | Manufacture | Selling and administration | Transportation to construction site |
| Cast-iron boilers with jackets | 1 ton [1] | 96.1 | 18.2 | 1.8 | 54.4 | 15.4 | 6.3 |
| Cast-iron boilers without jackets | 1 ton [1] | 81.3 | 14.3 | 1.7 | 46.4 | 13.0 | 5.9 |
| Steel boilers with jackets | 1 ton | 150.5 | 41.8 | 4.0 | 71.0 | 27.4 | 6.3 |
| Steel boilers without jackets | 1 ton | 135.7 | 37.9 | 3.9 | 63.0 | 25.0 | 5.9 |
| Cast-iron radiators | 1,000 ft. | 190.1 | 65.7 | 5.4 | 87.5 | 20.0 | 11.5 |
| Cast-iron furnaces with casings | 1 ton [1] | 80.9 | 19.3 | 2.0 | 41.0 | 14.0 | 4.6 |
| Screwed black cast-iron fittings, ½–1¼ in. | 1,000 | 46.2 | 7.5 | .9 | 29.7 | 5.0 | 3.1 |
| Screwed black cast-iron fittings, 1¼–3 in. | 1,000 | 204.4 | 33.8 | 4.1 | 130.0 | 22.5 | 14.0 |
| Screwed black malleable-iron fittings, ½–1¼ in. | 1,000 | 50.5 | 6.0 | 1.1 | 35.3 | 6.0 | 2.1 |
| Screwed black malleable-iron fittings, 1¼–3 in. | 1,000 | 223.9 | 27.0 | 5.0 | 155.4 | 27.0 | 9.5 |
| Brass radiator valves, ½–1¼ in. | 100 | 63.5 | 13.3 | .5 | 37.4 | 12.0 | .3 |
| Brass water-gate valves, ½–1¼ in. | 100 | 56.6 | 10.9 | .4 | 33.0 | 12.0 | .3 |
| Brass water-gate valves, 1¼–3 in. | 100 | 217.5 | 58.9 | 2.2 | 90.0 | 64.8 | 1.6 |
| Cast-iron enameled— | | | | | | | |
| Plumbing ware, all kinds | 1 ton [1] | 134.4 | 20.2 | 3.8 | 93.6 | [2] 10.8 | 6.0 |
| Bathtubs, recessed | 1 ton [1] | 115.5 | 20.2 | 3.8 | 74.9 | [2] 10.8 | 5.8 |
| Bathtubs with legs | 1 ton [1] | 103.3 | 20.2 | 3.8 | 62.7 | [2] 10.8 | 5.8 |
| Kitchen sinks | 1 ton [1] | 181.8 | 20.2 | 3.8 | 140.4 | [2] 10.8 | 6.6 |
| Lavatories | 1 ton [1] | 158.2 | 20.2 | 3.8 | 117.0 | [2] 10.8 | 6.4 |
| Vitreous-china— | | | | | | | |
| Plumbing ware, all kinds | 1 ton | 156.0 | 10.9 | 5.3 | 117.2 | [3] 17.1 | 5.5 |
| Bowls | 1 ton | 179.1 | 10.9 | 5.3 | 140.6 | [3] 17.1 | 5.2 |
| Lavatories | 1 ton | 167.8 | 10.9 | 5.3 | 128.9 | [3] 17.1 | 5.6 |
| Tanks with covers | 1 ton | 132.5 | 10.9 | 5.3 | 93.8 | [3] 17.1 | 5.4 |
| Plumbing brass | 100 lb. [1] | 39.7 | 8.0 | .3 | 28.6 | 2.6 | .2 |

[1] Rough-casting weight.
[2] The labor involved in these items estimated to be the same, 10.8 man-hours.
[3] The labor involved in these items estimated to be the same, 17.1 man-hours.

## *Labor Requirements for Typical Plumbing and Heating Supplies Used in Dwellings* [4]

The bathroom in a typical dwelling unit may contain a 5-foot cast-iron enameled recess bathtub involving 15.9 man-hours for production and distribution; a vitreous-china lavatory without pedestal 24 by 20 inches or a cast-iron enameled lavatory 17 by 19 inches requiring 4.6 man-hours for the former, or 3.6 man-hours for the latter; and a vitreous-china bowl and tank with cover, involving 6.1 man-hours, 2.9 of which were required for producing and distributing the

[4] The man-hours required for these supplies are determined from the weights of the various products. Weights vary according to the quality, specifications, and style of the products. The weights used in this study are the weights of the styles most frequently used in small dwellings.

bowl. These bathroom fixtures require about 35.9 pounds of plumbing brass, rough-casting weight, such as chromium-plated faucets, showerheads, strainers, and traps, and tank fittings. The bathtub and shower used 21.8 pounds, the lavatory, 10.4 pounds, and the tank 3.7 pounds. Over 14 man-hours are involved in producing and distributing these brass plumbing products. In all, approximately 40.0 man-hours are required to produce and distribute the fixtures which are installed in a modern bathroom.

The kitchen of a typical dwelling unit may have a 42-inch enameled sink and requires 12.0 pounds of plumbing brass, such as chromium plated faucets, strainers, and traps. These products involve 13.9 man-hours, the kitchen sink alone requiring 9.1 man-hours. Some kitchens may have an enameled laundry tray and sink combination, involving 16.9 man-hours.

The heating plant of a typical six-room dwelling is usually a radiated or an air system.[5] If the former type is installed, a cast-iron hot-water boiler with a jacket weighing approximately 1,100 pounds, casting weight, and involving 52.9 man-hours, or a steel boiler with a jacket weighing about 900 pounds and involving 67.7 man-hours may be required. About 400 feet of radiation involving 76.0 man-hours will also be used. If an air system is installed, a 1,000-pound cast-iron furnace involving 40.5 man-hours will be required.

A typical house uses about 7 brass radiator valves, ½ to 1¼ inches in diameter, requiring 4.4 man-hours; 6 brass water-gate valves ½ to 1¼ inches in diameter and one 1¼ to 3 inches in diameter, involving 5.6 man-hours; approximately 150 screwed black cast-iron fittings such as elbows and tees (100 of ½ to 1¼ inches and 50 of 1¼ to 3 inches), involving 14.8 man-hours; and about 110 screwed black malleable fittings (100 of ½ to 1¼ inches and 10 of 1¼ to 3 inches), involving 7.3 man-hours.

A typical house has an enameled laundry tray, with two sections, in the laundry. The production and distribution of the tub requires 15.1 man-hours of labor, and 2.6 man-hours are required for the 6½ pounds, rough-casting weight, of plumbing brass such as faucets and plugs.

It is estimated that the production and transportation of plumbing and heating supplies used in a typical six-room house with one bathroom, using hot-water radiated heat[6] required 233 man-hours.

Table 2 shows the labor required to produce and distribute plumbing and heating supplies used in the construction of dwelling units.

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[5] A radiated system can also be supplied with air-conditioning factors, and an air system may be a furnace installation or an air-conditioning system.

[6] This does not include pipe and specialties, such as thermostats, gages, thermometers, and tanks.

TABLE 2.—*Man-Hours Required to Produce and Distribute Units of Plumbing and Heating Supplies Used in Typical 6-Room Dwellings*

| Product | Unit | Man-hours required | Product | Unit | Man-hours required |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Cast-iron boilers with jackets | 1 | 52.9 | Cast-iron enameled—Continued. | | |
| Steel boilers with jackets | 1 | 67.7 | Laundry tray, 2-section tray, without pedestals. | 1 | 15.1 |
| Cast-iron radiators | 400 ft. | 76.0 | Vitreous-china— | | |
| Cast-iron furnaces with casings | 1 | 40.5 | Bowls | 1 | 2.9 |
| Screwed black fittings— | | | Lavatories with pedestals, 24 x 20 in. | 1 | 6.3 |
| Cast-iron, ½–1¼ in | 100 | 4.6 | Lavatories without pedestals, 24 x 20 in. | 1 | 4.6 |
| Cast-iron, 1¼–3 in | 50 | 10.2 | Tanks with covers | 1 | 3.2 |
| Malleable-iron, ½–1¼ in | 100 | 5.1 | Plumbing brass for— | | |
| Malleable-iron, 1¼–3 in | 10 | 2.2 | Bathtubs[1] | 1 | 8.7 |
| Brass radiator valves, ½–1¼ in | 7 | 4.4 | Lavatories[2] | 1 | 4.1 |
| Brass water-gate valves, ½–1¼ in | 6 | 3.4 | Kitchen sinks[3] | 1 | 4.8 |
| Brass water-gate valves, 1¼–3 in | 1 | 2.2 | Tanks[4] | 1 | 1.5 |
| Cast-iron enameled— | | | Laundry trays[5] | 1 | 2.6 |
| Bathtubs, recessed, 5-foot | 1 | 15.9 | | | |
| Bathtubs with legs, 5-foot | 1 | 9.3 | | | |
| Kitchen sinks, 42 inches | 1 | 9.1 | | | |
| Lavatories, 17 x 19 inches | 1 | 3.6 | | | |
| Laundry tray and sink combination. | 1 | 16.9 | | | |

[1] The plumbing brass for both tubs includes tub fittings, shower fittings, and shower-curtain rods.
[2] The plumbing brass for lavatories includes 2 single faucets, 1 plug with stopper, 2 supply pipes ⅜ inch in diameter, and trap 1¼ inches in diameter.
[3] The plumbing brass for kitchen sinks includes 1 double faucet, 1 plug with grid, and 1 trap 1½ inches in diameter.
[4] The plumbing brass for tanks includes inside parts such as float valve and lever with handle.
[5] The plumbing brass for laundry trays includes 1 faucet with swinging spout and 1 plug 1½ inches in diameter.

## *Application to Federal Construction Projects*

From the beginning of the Public Works Administration to December 31, 1937, $34,260,000 worth of plumbing supplies and $48,798,000 worth of heating and ventilating equipment were purchased for construction projects. It is estimated that approximately 65,800,000[7] man-hours of labor were involved away from the site of construction in the production and distribution of these products. About 26,800,000 man-hours were involved in producing and distributing the plumbing supplies and approximately 39,000,000 man-hours for heating and ventilating equipment. Expenditures for all departments of the Federal Government from the time the Bureau of Labor Statistics began collecting data on the value of materials used on the various programs to December 31, 1937,[8] totaled $47,937,000 for plumbing supplies and $60,897,000 for heating and ventilating equipment, involving about 86,200,000 man-hours of labor away from the site of construction. Of this total 21 percent of the labor was in mines, forests, and fields; 3 percent in transportation of raw materials

[7] This study does not cover heating and ventilating equipment such as oil burners, blowers, and ventilating ducts. The man-hours required for the plumbing and heating equipment for those supplies which were included in the study, however, have been applied to the value of plumbing, heating, and ventilating equipment used on P. W. A. projects.

[8] The Bureau of Labor Statistics has been collecting statistics on the value of material orders placed on construction projects financed by P. W. A. funds since the beginning of the program in July 1933, by funds provided by the Reconstruction Finance Corporation from April 1934, from regular Federal appropriations from July 1934, and by the Works Program beginning in July 1935.

to the factories; 59 percent in manufacturing establishments in which the finished materials were produced; 13 percent in selling and administration; and 4 percent in transportation of the finished products from the factories to the site of construction by railroad and truck.

## LABOR COSTS IN THE COAL INDUSTRY IN VARIOUS COUNTRIES

LABOR COSTS in underground mines generally represent from two-fifths to three-fourths of the total cost of obtaining coal at the pithead according to a recent study of the International Labor Office.[9] The variations in costs are brought about by a number of physical conditions in addition to differences in wage scales and labor productivity. Recognizing the numerous forces at work that affect output the International Labor Office brought together data on labor productivity, relative labor costs, and earnings in preparation for the World Coal Conference held in Geneva in May 1938 as a guide in the discussion of reduction of working hours in the industry. This labor information was obtained in connection with a broad survey of economic conditions in coal mining.

### *Labor Productivity*

Output of coal per man-shift varies widely among the coal-producing countries. If a comparison is made of productivity in European countries and the United States, Belgium stands out as having the lowest rate and the United States as having the highest. The following statement shows the output per man per shift in eight countries, in terms of index numbers based on the rate in Belgium in 1935 as 100.

*Indexes of output per man-shift, 1935*

[Belgium = 100]

| | *Index numbers* |
|---|---|
| Belgium | 100 |
| France | 112 |
| Great Britain | 153 |
| Czechoslovakia (bituminous) | 172 |
| Germany | 220 |
| Netherlands | 232 |
| Poland | 261 |
| United States (bituminous) | 525 |

In 1935 the output per man-shift of bituminous-coal miners in the United States was over five times that of Belgian workers, over four times that of the French, three times that of the British and Czechoslovakian, and double that in Germany, the Netherlands, and Poland.

[9] International Labor Office. Technical Tripartite Meeting on the Coal-Mining Industry. Report Part 1, Economic Conditions. Geneva, 1938.

Great variations in productivity were also found among the individual mining districts of the same country. For example, during the last quarter of 1936, output per man-shift in South Wales and Monmouthshire was only 81 percent of the Yorkshire, England, rate.

Productivity of labor has tended to increase substantially in most countries in the past 10 years. Variations reflect differences such as seam thickness, depth and pitch of seams, character of roof and bottom of seams, distance to the face from mine openings, as well as methods of mining employed, degree of mechanization in cutting, loading and hauling, to cite the more important factors. Table 1 gives the output per man per shift, by years from 1927 to 1936, for seven coal-producing countries, in metric tons and in index numbers based upon 1929 as 100.

TABLE 1.—*Output per Man per Shift or Day, in Specified Countries, 1927–36*

| Year | Belgium | Czechoslovakia | France | Germany (Prussia) | Netherlands (State mines) | Poland (Upper Silesia) | United Kingdom |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Metric tons | | | | | | |
| 1927 | 0.513 | 0.938 | 0.590 | 1.055 | 1.14 | 1.275 | 1.047 |
| 1928 | .554 | .958 | .640 | 1,102 | 1.32 | 1.349 | 1.081 |
| 1929 | .576 | 1.006 | .691 | 1.172 | 1.32 | 1.339 | 1.102 |
| 1930 | .575 | .991 | .688 | 1.226 | 1.31 | 1.348 | 1.098 |
| 1931 | .591 | 1.020 | .718 | 1.321 | 1.37 | 1.492 | 1.098 |
| 1932 | .609 | 1.028 | .776 | 1.422 | 1.50 | 1.583 | 1.117 |
| 1933 | .663 | 1.128 | .824 | 1.473 | 1.57 | 1.795 | 1.142 |
| 1934 | .735 | 1.166 | .848 | 1.480 | 1.65 | 1.930 | 1.166 |
| 1935 | .775 | 1.213 | .862 | 1.497 | 1.76 | 1.995 | 1.186 |
| 1936 | ---------- | 1.311 | ---------- | 1.516 | 1.77 | 2.045 | 1.198 |
| | Indexes, 1929=100 | | | | | | |
| 1927 | 89.1 | 93.2 | 85.4 | 90.0 | 86.4 | 95.1 | 95.0 |
| 1928 | 96.2 | 95.2 | 92.7 | 94.0 | 100.0 | 100.7 | 98.1 |
| 1929 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 |
| 1930 | 99.8 | 98.5 | 99.6 | 104.6 | 99.2 | 100.7 | 99.6 |
| 1931 | 102.6 | 101.4 | 103.9 | 112.7 | 103.8 | 111.4 | 99.6 |
| 1932 | 105.7 | 102.2 | 112.3 | 121.3 | 113.6 | 118.2 | 101.4 |
| 1933 | 115.1 | 112.1 | 119.3 | 125.7 | 118.9 | 134.1 | 103.6 |
| 1934 | 127.6 | 115.9 | 122.8 | 126.3 | 125.0 | 144.1 | 105.8 |
| 1935 | 134.5 | 120.6 | 124.8 | 127.7 | 133.3 | 149.0 | 107.6 |
| 1936 | ---------- | 130.3 | ---------- | 129.4 | 134.1 | 152.7 | 108.5 |

Efforts to increase productivity after 1929 and thus reduce labor costs met with considerable success. The striking rise in output per man-shift, the International Labor Office states, "may well be interpreted as reflecting the pressure to offset lower sales prices by lower labor costs." In Germany, Belgium, the Netherlands, Poland, and Czechoslovakia, productivity in 1935–36 was 30 percent above the base year, 1929. In France the increase was 25 percent. The least increase in output was in Great Britain, where the rise was 8.5 percent. In every case these figures relate to output per man-shift without taking into account changes in the length of the working day.

## *Wage Rates in Relation to Productivity*

Reductions in wage rates have accompanied increases in productivity, with the net result that labor costs have been further decreased. This is shown in table 2 covering average earnings per man-shift or day in selected countries, 1927–36.

TABLE 2.—*Average Earnings per Man-Shift or Day in Selected Countries, 1927–36*

| Year | Average earnings per shift | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Belgium [1] | Czechoslovakia [2] | France [3] | Germany (Prussia) [4] | Netherlands (State mines) [5] | Poland [6] | United Kingdom [7] |
| | *Francs* | *Koruny* | *Francs* | *Marks* | *Guldens* | *Zlotys* | *s. d.* |
| 1927 | 40.91 | 43.75 | 31.45 | 7.95 | 5.22 | ---------- | 10 5¾ |
| 1928 | 41.57 | 45.18 | 31.19 | 8.47 | 5.29 | ---------- | 9 8¼ |
| 1929 | 48.78 | 46.09 | 34.31 | 8.80 | 5.50 | ---------- | 9 7¾ |
| 1930 | 51.91 | 46.31 | 36.98 | 8.95 | 5.61 | ---------- | 9 8¼ |
| 1931 | 44.04 | 47.48 | 35.94 | 8.25 | 5.43 | 9.88 | 9 6¾ |
| 1932 | 38.01 | 46.21 | 33.12 | 6.94 | 5.00 | 9.15 | 9 6¾ |
| 1933 | 36.64 | 45.57 | 32.79 | 7.00 | 4.86 | 8.74 | 9 6 |
| 1934 | 36.41 | 44.10 | 32.67 | 7.07 | 4.78 | 8.22 | 9 6¼ |
| 1935 | 35.69 | 44.58 | 32.50 | 7.18 | 4.71 | 8.05 | 9 7¾ |
| 1936 | ---------- | 44.74 | ---------- | 7.20 | 4.71 | 8.00 | 10 5 |
| | Indexes, 1929=100 | | | | | | |
| 1927 | 83.9 | 94.9 | 91.7 | 90.3 | 94.9 | ---------- | 109.1 |
| 1928 | 85.2 | 98.0 | 90.9 | 96.3 | 96.2 | ---------- | 100.9 |
| 1929 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | ---------- | 100.0 |
| 1930 | 106.4 | 100.5 | 107.8 | 101.7 | 102.0 | ---------- | 100.9 |
| 1931 | 90.3 | 103.0 | 104.5 | 93.8 | 98.7 | (100.0) | 99.6 |
| 1932 | 77.9 | 100.3 | 96.5 | 78.9 | 90.9 | (92.6) | 99.6 |
| 1933 | 75.1 | 98.9 | 95.6 | 79.5 | 88.4 | (85.6) | 98.9 |
| 1934 | 74.6 | 95.7 | 95.2 | 80.3 | 86.9 | (83.2) | 99.1 |
| 1935 | 73.2 | 96.7 | 94.7 | 81.6 | 85.6 | (81.5) | 100.4 |
| 1936 | ---------- | 97.1 | ---------- | 81.8 | 85.6 | (81.0) | 108.5 |

[1] Gross wages per day, excluding allowances in cash and in kind.
[2] Including bonuses, payments in kind, etc. Excluding employer contributions.
[3] Cash earnings, including cash bonuses, premiums, and family allowances. Excluding all allowances in kind.
[4] Including worker contributions and payments in kind. Excluding employer contributions.
[5] Wages, plus allowances.
[6] Including employer contributions to social insurance, overtime, family allowances, payments for holidays, taxes on wages, and miners' coal. The figures for Poland are from the Statistische Nebersicht, 1936, p. 82.
[7] Cash earnings, plus allowances in kind.

The figures in table 2 indicate that improved labor productivity did not bring about increased money earnings per day. In Great Britain average daily earnings per employed worker remained practically constant from 1929 to 1935, but rose considerably in 1936. For mine workers in Czechoslovakia there was a 3-percent decrease in earnings between 1929 and 1936, and in France the decrease was 5 percent between 1929 and 1935. In the remaining countries (Germany, Poland, Belgium, and the Netherlands) the decrease in average earnings up to 1935 or 1936 was substantial. This decline is especially significant, as it was in the latter four countries that man-shift output increased most in the period under review.

As these figures refer only to mine workers in employment, no general conclusions may be drawn as to average weekly, monthly, or yearly earnings. To make general conclusions it would also be necessary to have information on days worked and purchasing power. Nevertheless, the International Labor Office finds from the data available that "the interplay of social and economic forces between 1929 and 1936 was such that the wage rates paid to coal miners did not show the effects that might be expected under more 'normal' conditions from a strong rise in labor productivity."

The wide divergence between the trend in productivity and money earnings per man-day is reflected in the figures showing labor cost per ton of product. Table 3 gives the wage cost per metric ton of coal in the seven selected countries for which data appeared in table 2. Both money cost and the cost converted to index numbers, based on the 1929 cost as 100, are shown for 1927 to 1936, inclusive.

TABLE 3.—*Wage Cost per Metric Ton of Coal in Selected Countries, 1927–36*

| Year | Wage cost per metric ton | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Belgium [1] | Czechoslovakia [2] | France [3] | Germany (Prussia) [4] | Netherlands (State mines) [5] | Poland [6] | United Kingdom [7] |
| | *Francs* | *Koruny* | *Francs* | *Marks* | *Guldens* | *Zlotys* | *s. d.* |
| 1927 | 79.72 | 45.34 | 53.25 | 7.54 | 4.72 | 8.27 | 10 5½ |
| 1928 | 75.10 | 46.67 | 48.73 | 7.68 | 4.03 | 9.06 | 9 4 |
| 1929 | 84.63 | 45.82 | 49.83 | 7.51 | 4.18 | 10.10 | 9 0¼ |
| 1930 | 90.19 | 46.74 | 53.74 | 7.31 | 4.29 | 10.77 | 9 2 |
| 1931 | 74.45 | 46.23 | 49.88 | 6.26 | 3.98 | 10.74 | 9 1 |
| 1932 | 62.40 | 44.94 | 42.64 | 4.89 | 3.25 | 10.13 | 8 11 |
| 1933 | 55.26 | 40.40 | 39.79 | 4.75 | 3.05 | 9.58 | 8 7¾ |
| 1934 | 49.56 | 37.82 | 38.52 | 4.78 | 2.88 | 9.14 | 8 5½ |
| 1935 | 46.05 | 36.74 | 37.70 | 4.80 | 2.62 | 9.17 | 8 5 |
| 1936 | ---------- | 34.13 | ---------- | 4.75 | 2.58 | 9.11 | 9 0¼ |
| | Indexes, 1929=100 | | | | | | |
| 1927 | 94.2 | 99.0 | 106.9 | 100.4 | 112.9 | 81.9 | 115.9 |
| 1928 | 88.7 | 101.9 | 97.8 | 102.3 | 96.4 | 89.7 | 103.4 |
| 1929 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 |
| 1930 | 106.6 | 102.0 | 107.8 | 97.3 | 102.6 | 106.6 | 101.6 |
| 1931 | 88.0 | 100.9 | 100.1 | 83.4 | 95.2 | 106.3 | 100.7 |
| 1932 | 73.7 | 98.1 | 85.6 | 65.1 | 77.8 | 100.3 | 98.9 |
| 1933 | 65.3 | 88.2 | 79.9 | 63.2 | 73.0 | 94.9 | 95.9 |
| 1934 | 58.6 | 82.5 | 77.3 | 63.6 | 68.9 | 90.5 | 93.9 |
| 1935 | 54.4 | 80.2 | 75.7 | 63.9 | 62.7 | 90.8 | 93.2 |
| 1936 | ---------- | 74.5 | ---------- | 63.2 | 61.7 | 90.2 | 100.0 |

[1] Gross wages, excluding allowances in cash and in kind.
[2] Total wages, including wages in cash and in kind, allowances, etc. Excluding employer contributions.
[3] Cash earnings, including cash bonuses, premiums, and family allowances. Excluding all allowances in kind.
[4] Excluding employer contributions. Including allowances in kind.
[5] Including social insurance (workers) and family allowances.
[6] Excluding employer contributions. Including allowances in kind.
[7] Including, in addition to wages, miners' contributions to social insurance and occupational charges, but excluding miner's coal and other allowances and employer contributions.

The wage costs per metric ton of coal have varied widely among the nations shown, in this 10-year period. The cost in Great Britain tended slowly downward from 1929 to 1935 and then rose sharply in

1936. In the other countries the downward trend lasted throughout the period from 1929 to 1936 but was sharpest between 1931 and 1933 or 1934. By the end of the period, the report here reviewed states, wage costs had seemingly come to the end of their decline, and there was no way of determining whether other costs were reduced as drastically or more drastically than wage costs.

Further light is thrown on labor costs by the indexes appearing in table 4, depicting relative labor costs per ton of salable coal for selected countries in 1935–36. In this table the labor cost in Great Britain is used as the base or 100.

TABLE 4.—*Index of Relative Labor Costs per Ton of Salable Coal, Selected Countries, 1935–36*

[Costs in Great Britain=100]

| Country | Including employer contributions for social insurance | | Excluding employer contributions for social insurance | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 1935 | 1936 | 1935 | 1936 |
| Union of South Africa [1] | [2] 13 | [2] 12 | 14 | 12 |
| Japan | 27 | ---- | 29 | ---- |
| Poland | 52 | 46 | 48 | 42 |
| Germany (West Upper Silesia) | ---- | ---- | [3] 68 | [3] 60 |
| United States (bituminous) | 57 | ---- | 61 | ---- |
| Czechoslovakia | 87 | 76 | 83 | 71 |
| Belgium | [4] 81 | ---- | [4] 81 | ---- |
| Germany (Ruhr) | ---- | ---- | [3] 96 | [3] 88 |
| Canada | 91 | ---- | 91 | ---- |
| Netherlands | 108 | 98 | 104 | 93 |
| Great Britain | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 |
| United States (anthracite) | 121 | ---- | 130 | ---- |
| France | 148 | ---- | 145 | ---- |

[1] Native and colored workers, i. e., direct mining labor only.
[2] For all workers, including white supervisory labor, the figures were 23 and 22 for 1935 and 1936 respectively.
[3] Based on the official exchange rate of the mark. This rate is largely nominal, but there are no means of computing the effective rate of the mark in transactions involving coal.
[4] Based on the post-devaluation rate of the belga in foreign exchange; these costs would be higher if use were made of the belga's weighted average value for the whole year.

In France, where labor costs ran highest during 1935 and 1936, the relative labor cost was nearly three times as high as the corresponding level in Poland (the country having the lowest index in Europe). In turn Polish costs were about half of those in Great Britain and those in the Ruhr nine-tenths of British costs.

The International Labor Office concludes that labor, by increased productivity at lower wages, absorbed some of the reduction in coal prices that resulted from the intensified struggle for coal markets in recent years. On the other hand, with the improvement in the coal trade since 1932 mine labor has benefited in other ways; that is, in the reduction of unemployment, the substitution of full-time or overtime for part-time employment, increases in family income, and shortened weekly working time in some cases without a reduction in weekly earnings.

## SOCIAL-ECONOMIC GROUPING OF GAINFUL WORKERS

IN THE occupation statistics of the United States Bureau of the Census it has been the custom in the past to present figures for different occupations and occupation groups and also for a few general divisions of occupations, such as agriculture and manufacturing industries. In a report [1] just issued by the Bureau of the Census the attempt is made, for the first time, to classify the gainful workers into six main social-economic groups—(1) professional persons, (2) proprietors, managers, and officials, (3) clerks, (4) skilled workers, (5) semiskilled workers, and (6) unskilled workers. The basic data are from the 1930 Census of Occupations.

The report presents detailed tables, by State, city, color, nativity, age, industry, and other factors. The accompanying summary table shows the distribution for the major classifications, by sex.

*Gainful Workers in the United States Classified Into Social-Economic Groups, by Sex, 1910 to 1930*

| Sex and group | Number | | | Percentage distribution | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 1930 | 1920 | 1910 | 1930 | 1920 | 1910 |
| **Males and females** | **48,829,320** | **41,614,248** | **38,167,336** | **100.0** | **100.0** | **100.0** |
| Professional persons | 2,945,797 | 2,050,162 | 1,632,638 | 6.0 | 4.9 | 4.3 |
| Proprietors, managers, and officials | 9,665,540 | 9,180,583 | 8,579,746 | 19.8 | 22.1 | 22.5 |
| Farmers (owners and tenants) | 6,012,012 | 6,387,360 | 6,132,380 | 12.3 | 15.3 | 16.1 |
| Wholesale and retail dealers | 1,787,047 | 1,401,849 | 1,246,077 | 3.7 | 3.4 | 3.3 |
| Other proprietors, managers, and officials | 1,866,481 | 1,391,374 | 1,201,289 | 3.8 | 3.3 | 3.1 |
| Clerks and kindred workers | 7,949,455 | 5,704,970 | 3,826,959 | 16.3 | 13.7 | 10.0 |
| Skilled workers and foremen | 6,282,687 | 5,570,602 | 4,364,060 | 12.9 | 13.4 | 11.4 |
| Semiskilled workers | 7,977,572 | 6,638,615 | 5,512,344 | 16.3 | 16.0 | 14.4 |
| Semiskilled workers in manufacturing | 4,557,993 | 4,357,451 | 3,674,302 | 9.3 | 10.5 | 9.6 |
| Other semiskilled workers | 3,419,579 | 2,281,164 | 1,838,042 | 7.0 | 5.5 | 4.8 |
| Unskilled workers | 14,008,869 | 12,469,316 | 14,251,589 | 28.7 | 30.0 | 37.3 |
| Farm laborers | 4,392,764 | 4,186,128 | 6,205,633 | 9.0 | 10.1 | 16.3 |
| Factory and building-construction laborers | 3,374,143 | 3,136,276 | 2,659,917 | 6.9 | 7.5 | 7.0 |
| Other laborers | 2,903,065 | 2,890,738 | 2,821,526 | 5.9 | 6.9 | 7.4 |
| Servant classes | 3,338,897 | 2,256,174 | 2,564,513 | 6.8 | 5.4 | 6.7 |

[1] U. S. Bureau of the Census. A Social-Economic Grouping of the Gainful Workers of the United States, 1930. Washington, 1938.

*Gainful Workers in the United States Classified Into Social-Economic Groups, by Sex, 1910 to 1930*—Continued

| Sex and group | Number | | | Percentage distribution | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 1930 | 1920 | 1910 | 1930 | 1920 | 1910 |
| **Males** | **38,077,804** | **33,064,737** | **30,091,564** | **100.0** | **100.0** | **100.0** |
| Professional persons | 1,497,934 | 1,061,791 | 913,866 | 3.9 | 3.2 | 3.0 |
| Proprietors, managers, and officials | 9,159,896 | 8,757,614 | 8,183,563 | 24.1 | 26.5 | 27.2 |
| Farmers (owners and tenants) | 5,749,367 | 6,121,783 | 5,859,238 | 15.1 | 18.5 | 19.5 |
| Wholesale and retail dealers | 1,675,193 | 1,322,075 | 1,178,049 | 4.4 | 4.0 | 3.9 |
| Other proprietors, managers, and officials | 1,735,336 | 1,313,756 | 1,146,276 | 4.6 | 4.0 | 3.8 |
| Clerks and kindred workers | 4,877,235 | 3,511,808 | 2,744,488 | 12.8 | 10.6 | 9.1 |
| Skilled workers and foremen | 6,201,542 | 5,469,048 | 4,267,327 | 16.3 | 16.5 | 14.2 |
| Semiskilled workers | 5,448,158 | 4,375,995 | 3,326,830 | 14.3 | 13.2 | 11.1 |
| Semiskilled workers in manufacturing | 2,881,022 | 2,689,245 | 2,032,346 | 7.6 | 8.1 | 6.8 |
| Other semiskilled workers | 2,567,136 | 1,686,750 | 1,294,484 | 6.7 | 5.1 | 4.2 |
| Unskilled workers | 10,893,039 | 9,888,481 | 10,655,490 | 28.6 | 29.9 | 35.4 |
| Farm laborers | 3,746,433 | 3,382,899 | 4,679,926 | 9.8 | 10.2 | 15.6 |
| Factory and building-construction laborers | 3,248,622 | 2,966,841 | 2,571,215 | 8.5 | 9.0 | 8.5 |
| Other laborers | 2,871,744 | 2,859,343 | 2,803,596 | 7.5 | 8.6 | 9.3 |
| Servant classes | 1,026,240 | 679,398 | 600,753 | 2.7 | 2.1 | 2.0 |
| **Females** | **10,752,116** | **8,549,511** | **8,075,772** | **100.0** | **100.0** | **100.0** |
| Professional persons | 1,447,863 | 988,371 | 718,772 | 13.5 | 11.6 | 8.9 |
| Proprietors, managers, and officials | 505,644 | 422,969 | 396,183 | 4.7 | 4.9 | 4.9 |
| Farmers (owners and tenants) | 262,645 | 265,577 | 273,142 | 2.4 | 3.1 | 3.4 |
| Wholesale and retail dealers | 111,854 | 79,774 | 68,028 | 1.0 | 0.9 | 0.8 |
| Other proprietors, managers, and officials | 131,145 | 77,618 | 55,013 | 1.2 | 0.9 | 0.7 |
| Clerks and kindred workers | 3,072,220 | 2,193,162 | 1,082,471 | 28.6 | 25.7 | 13.4 |
| Skilled workers and foremen | 81,145 | 101,554 | 96,733 | 0.8 | 1.2 | 1.2 |
| Semiskilled workers | 2,529,414 | 2,262,620 | 2,185,514 | 23.5 | 26.5 | 27.1 |
| Semiskilled workers in manufacturing | 1,676,971 | 1,668,206 | 1,641,956 | 15.6 | 19.5 | 20.3 |
| Other semiskilled workers | 852,443 | 594,414 | 543,558 | 7.9 | 7.0 | 6.7 |
| Unskilled workers | 3,115,830 | 2,580,835 | 3,596,009 | 29.0 | 30.2 | 44.5 |
| Farm laborers | 646,331 | 803,229 | 1,525,707 | 6.0 | 9.4 | 18.9 |
| Factory and building-construction laborers | 125,521 | 169,435 | 88,702 | 1.2 | 2.0 | 1.1 |
| Other laborers | 31,321 | 31,395 | 17,930 | 0.3 | 0.4 | 0.2 |
| Servant classes | 2,312,657 | 1,576,776 | 1,963,760 | 21.5 | 18.4 | 24.3 |

The difficulties inherent in this attempt to classify occupations by social-economic groupings are noted in the report:

A classification of all occupations according to skill, if it could be made, would be very useful; but a complete classification by skill is impossible, since many occupations do not lend themselves to such a classification. Indeed, none of the professional, proprietary, official, managerial, or clerical pursuits lends itself readily to a classification by skill; and it is doubtful whether any of them may be properly so classified, since in none of them is skill or manual dexterity the chief characteristic. In fact, it is believed that only those occupations in which the expenditure of muscular force is an important characteristic can be properly classified by skill. While it is plainly impossible to draw a hard and fast line between those occupations characterized principally by the exercise of muscular force or manual dexterity and those characterized chiefly by the exercise of mental force or ingenuity—or between hand workers and head workers—such a line of demarcation probably may be made sufficiently exact for our purpose.

The grouping of the gainful workers here presented is not based on skill, except in the case of groups 4, 5, and 6, in which most of the occupations may be more or less readily classified by skill.

In the construction of these three groups those occupations are considered skilled for the pursuance of which a long period of training or an apprenticeship is usually necessary, and which in their pursuance call for a degree of judgment and of manual dexterity, one or both, above that required in semiskilled occupations. Those occupations are considered semiskilled for the pursuance of which only a short period or no period of preliminary training is necessary, and which

in their pursuance call for only a moderate degree of judgment or of manual dexterity. Unskilled occupations are considered to include those the workers in which usually require no special training, judgment, or manual dexterity, but supply mainly muscular strength for the performance of coarse, heavy work.

Unfortunately, it has not been possible to classify all manual workers as skilled, semiskilled, or unskilled strictly according to the above concepts. In each group of manual workers, certain of the occupations include some workers who would be better classified by skill in one of the other groups. In fact, each of the groups here presented doubtless contains some workers who do not actually belong there, and some workers who have been included principally for want of a more appropriate place for them. In no group, however, are such workers numerous enough to affect the group total materially.

## GOVERNMENT CONTROL OF EMPLOYMENT OF WORKERS IN GERMANY[1]

SINCE May 15, 1934, when the National Socialist Government took the initial steps towards regimenting German workers in the interest of the State by restricting the free choice of a worker as to his employment and by generally restricting the mobility of labor, the machinery for such control has been gradually strengthened and the Government's powers amplified. The most important steps directed toward establishing the supremacy of the State over the employment of workers have been the following:

Closing of certain districts to nonresident workers, May 15, 1934.

Authorizing the prohibition of certain former agricultural workers from engaging in other forms of labor, May 15, 1934.

Authorizing the dismissal of former agricultural workers from present industrial and other employment, May 15, 1934.

Authorizing the transfer of workers from public-works projects to agriculture, May 15, 1934.

Introducing the labor passport for all German workers for the purpose of controlling their employment, June 1, 1935.

Requiring the approval of the employment service when employing metal or iron workers, October 7, 1936.

Forcing iron and metal workers employed in other industries to return to the iron and metal industries, October 6, 1936.

Obliging enterprises to employ white-collar workers above 40 years of age, October 7, 1936.

Prohibiting anonymous advertising for skilled workers, October 7, 1936.

Requiring a report to the employment service of all building projects which seriously affect the employment field, October 7, 1936.

Obliging iron, metal, and building trades to take on apprentices (in order to train skilled workers) and to compile statistics (in order to determine the average number of apprentices in these enterprises), January 15, 1937.

Requiring one year's employment as agricultural worker or domestic servant for young women, February 15, 1938.

[1] Data are from report of Carlos J. Warner, American Consul at Berlin, March 31, 1938; and Hugh R. Wilson, American Ambassador to Germany, March 16, 1938.

### *Orders of March 1, 1938*

Two other orders were issued on March 1, 1938, and three additional orders on March 8, 1938, to supplement the above legislation. The orders of March 1 related to the reporting of children leaving school and to the placement of workers in individual enterprises.

Whereas it was the purpose of the initial legislative measures of May 15, 1934, to direct young workers under 25 years of age into certain channels, especially farm work and the metal industry, the more recent measures have been directed toward ameliorating the serious lack of skilled workers which has gradually developed.

The new order regarding the reporting of children leaving school provided that after March 14, 1938, the effective date of the order, all juveniles who leave a primary, advanced, or secondary school must within two weeks after leaving school report at the local employment service office having jurisdiction over the districts in which they live. Furthermore, those juveniles who left school after January 1, 1934, and who have since that date not had any gainful employment which would have been noted in the labor passport, must also report to their local employment service. Juveniles are defined as persons who have not completed their twenty-first year. The report that a juvenile has left school and is available for employment through the local employment service office is to be made by his parents or other legal representative such as a foster father or guardian. A special form sheet is provided for making the report. The local employment service may demand that the juvenile appear in person at the service. Parents or guardians who do not make the report punctually or who keep their children or wards from personally appearing when so required at the employment service may be fined up to 150 marks.[2] The Federal Bureau for Employment and Unemployment Insurance, as the official control authority of the State over the employment of workers, hopes with the aid of this new order to obtain complete statistics regarding the number of juveniles available for skilled occupations. Furthermore, the Federal Bureau for Employment and Unemployment Insurance believes that it will be possible to mobilize the last reserves available for employment and that once it knows how many young people are available for skilled labor, it can force German industry to absorb a sufficient number of apprentices. It must be remembered that the shortage of skilled workers is to a large extent due to the lack of suitable apprenticeship jobs where German youth can get adequate vocational training.

The second measure of March 1, 1938—the order regulating the placing of workers in individual enterprises—was not aimed specifically at ameliorating the shortage of skilled labor. By this order all enterprises are obliged to obtain the approval of the competent em-

[2] Exchange rate of mark in January 1938=40.3 cents.

ployment office prior to engaging any new workers or office employees. It is hoped that this measure will make it impossible for certain large enterprises to induce the few available skilled workers to accept employment at their plants by offering them wages higher than those approved by the Government. Such practices have led to a general raising of the wage level in a limited number of industries, particularly those affected by the 4-year plan. The Government hopes, in addition, that it will be possible to control more rigidly the movement of apprentices, student workers, volunteers, and other potential skilled workers, foremen, and engineers. The two orders of March 1 will enable the Federal Bureau for Employment and Unemployment Insurance to keep close watch over the apprenticeship situation, which together with the lack of skilled workers and engineers has been causing the Government considerable worry.

### *Orders of March 8, 1938*

On March 8, the Employment Service and Unemployment Insurance Office issued three decrees designed to carry still further the State management of labor.

Two of these decrees codify measures which for some time have been applied by the Government labor authorities. The first decree brings apprentices within the scope of the general order, whereby workers under the age of 25 must first obtain the approval of these authorities before taking up employment in any particular establishment. The same control has virtually been exercised in the past by reason of the fact that apprentices have had to provide themselves with labor books, a sort of labor passport, indicating that the State labor offices tacitly approved their taking particular jobs.

The second decree authorizes the provincial labor offices to direct that individual establishments may not take on additional workers without Government permission. This order thus clears the way for an extension to other industries of the same measures decreed for the metal trades over a year ago. It is stated that it is designed to prevent factories from outbidding each other for the services of skilled workers.

The third decree set April 1 as the date for the registration of the juveniles finishing school.

## INDUSTRIAL DISTRIBUTION OF POPULATION OF SIAM

OF THE 7,519,757 occupied persons in Siam, 6,245,358, or 83.05 percent, were reported in the 1929 census as engaged in agriculture, silviculture, and animal industry, and only 164,526, or 2.19 percent,

in "industrial pursuits." The group designated "commerce, dealing, catering, etc." was quite substantial, including 503,839 persons, or 6.70 percent of the occupied population.[3] Corresponding figures for other groups are given in the accompanying table:

*Distribution of Occupied Workers in Siam by Industry Groups, 1929*

| Industry group | Occupied persons | |
|---|---|---|
| | Number | Percent |
| Total | 7,519,757 | 100.00 |
| Agriculture, silviculture and animal husbandry | 6,245,358 | 83.05 |
| Fishing | 82,853 | 1.10 |
| Professions and independent workers | 93,967 | 1.25 |
| Commerce, dealing, catering, etc | 503,839 | 6.70 |
| Industrial pursuits | 164,526 | 2.19 |
| Government employment (exclusive of Army and Navy) | 62,109 | .83 |
| Domestic services and others | 367,105 | 4.88 |

[3] Siam. Department of Secretary-General of the Council of Ministers. Division of Central Service of Statistics. Statistical Year Book of the Kingdom of Siam, 1933-35 (p. 88). Bangkok, 1937.

# *Education and Training*

## VOCATIONAL EDUCATION AND REHABILITATION, 1936–37

IN THE fiscal year ended June 30, 1937, over a million and a half (1,506,824) students in the United States, including Alaska, Hawaii, and Puerto Rico, were enrolled in vocational schools or classes (agricultural, trade, and industrial), operated under State and Territorial plans. This registration represented an increase of 125,123 over the previous fiscal year.[1] Of the total students enrolled, 394,400 were farm boys and adult farmers taking vocational-agriculture courses; 616,199 were boys and girls and adult trade and industrial workers taking trade and industrial courses; and 496,225 were girls and women enrolled in the homemaking courses. The distribution of these students in evening, part-time, and all-day classes, and the increases or decreases in enrollment in these classes in 1936–37 as compared with 1935–36, are shown in table 1.

TABLE 1.—*Enrollment in Vocational Schools or Classes Operated Under State Plans, Year Ended June 30, 1937* [1]

| Type of school | Enrollment 1936–37 | | | | Increase or decrease from 1935–36 to 1936–37 | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Total | Agricultural | Trade and industrial | Home economics | Total | Agricultural | Trade and industrial | Home economics |
| All types | 1,506,824 | 394,400 | 616,199 | 496,225 | +125,123 | +46,672 | +36,228 | +42,223 |
| Evening | 401,503 | 122,747 | 128,651 | 150,105 | +10,335 | +13,373 | +853 | −3,891 |
| Part-time | 376,875 | 29,328 | 297,254 | 50,293 | +42,362 | +6,927 | +22,222 | +13,213 |
| All-day | 728,446 | 242,325 | 190,294 | 295,827 | +72,426 | +26,372 | +13,153 | +32,901 |

[1] Provisional figures.

In table 2 the total enrollments in vocational schools and classes under State plans, by years from 1929 to 1937, are presented. Considerable increases are shown except for the years 1933 and 1934, in each of which the number of students decreased.

[1] Provisional figures. The data in this article are taken from Digest of Annual Reports of State Boards for Vocational Education to the Office of Education, Division of Vocational Education, fiscal year ended June 30, 1937, Washington, U. S. Office of Education, 1938.

TABLE 2.—*Enrollment in Vocational Schools Operated Under State Plans, by Years, 1929 to 1937*

| Year | Total | | Agricultural | Trade and industrial | Home economics |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Number | Increase or decrease | | | |
| 1937 [1] | 1,506,824 | +125,123 | 394,400 | 616,199 | 496,225 |
| 1936 | 1,381,701 | +134,178 | 347,728 | 579,971 | 454,002 |
| 1935 | 1,247,523 | +128,383 | 329,367 | 536,932 | 381,224 |
| 1934 | 1,119,140 | [2] −31,187 | 289,361 | 486,058 | 343,721 |
| 1933 | 1,150,327 | [2] −25,835 | 265,978 | 537,512 | 346,837 |
| 1932 | 1,176,162 | +58,606 | 257,255 | 579,591 | 339,316 |
| 1931 | 1,117,556 | +53,020 | 237,200 | 602,755 | 227,601 |
| 1930 | 1,064,536 | +16,560 | 193,325 | 633,153 | 238,058 |
| 1929 | 1,047,976 | +48,945 | 171,466 | 627,397 | 249,113 |

[1] Provisional figures.
[2] The decreases for 1933 and 1934 should be considered in connection with the decreases in Federal funds available in these years. A reduction in 1933 of 8 percent in these funds, and a further reduction in 1934 of 10 percent, as compared with the previous year, largely account for the decrease in enrollments of less than 3 percent for each of these years.

In the 47 States cooperating in the vocational-rehabilitation program in the fiscal year 1936–37, over 11,000 disabled persons were physically rehabilitated and placed in remunerative jobs. This was an increase in such cases of 753 over the preceding year. Furthermore, 45,096 disabled persons were being carried on State rehabilitation rolls on June 30, 1937—or 471 more than at the close of the preceding year. Among these were 32,345 who were being prepared for employment, 10,149 already prepared but waiting placement, and 2,602 employed but still being followed up in their work, as reported in table 3.

TABLE 3.—*Number of Disabled Persons Vocationally Rehabilitated and in Process of Rehabilitation, 1929 to 1937*

| Year ended June 30— | Rehabilitated during year | | | In process of rehabilitation, June 30 of specified year | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Total | Males | Females | Total | In preparation status [1] | Prepared, awaiting placement | At work, being followed up |
| 1937 [2] | 11,091 | 8,691 | 2,400 | 45,096 | 32,345 | [3] 10,149 | 2,602 |
| 1936 | 10,338 | 8,152 | 2,186 | 44,625 | 31,434 | [3] 11,064 | 2,127 |
| 1935 | 9,422 | 7,527 | 1,895 | 40,941 | 31,064 | 8,171 | 1,706 |
| 1934 | 8,062 | 6,319 | 1,743 | 37,681 | 31,530 | 4,729 | 1,422 |
| 1933 | 5,613 | 4,432 | 1,181 | 30,609 | 25,304 | 4,566 | 749 |
| 1932 | 5,550 | 4,367 | 1,183 | 27,403 | 23,387 | 3,327 | 889 |
| 1931 | 5,138 | 4,118 | 1,020 | 23,714 | 20,434 | 2,414 | 866 |
| 1930 | 4,612 | 3,761 | 851 | 20,298 | 19,118 | [4] | 1,180 |
| 1929 | 4,645 | 3,893 | 752 | 16,787 | 15,821 | [4] | 966 |

[1] Includes number "eligible and feasible under advisement," "in training," "undergoing physical restoration or being fitted with appliance," and "training interrupted."
[2] Provisional figures.
[3] Includes prospective cases carried on the live roll as follows: in 1936, 3,587; in 1937, 3,041.
[4] Not separately reported. Included as "in preparation status."

In accordance with the provisions of the George-Deen Act, approved June 8, 1936, authorizing additional annual appropriations for the

further development of vocational education in various fields, State boards for vocational education have submitted their temporary plans for training programs in the distributive occupations. The following are some of the advantages which these boards hold will result from vocational education in these occupations.

1. It will help to bring about greater stability among the distributive businesses of this country, about one-fifth of which discontinue each year.
2. It will help to reduce the failures in distributive businesses, which account for an average of 6 percent of all business discontinuances; as well as the number of bankruptcies in distributive and commercial businesses, which in 1935 amounted to approximately $157,000,000.
3. It will help to develop a realization that management of small stores and businesses should be undertaken only by persons who have had a definite preparation for this kind of work and are possessed of financial assets and experience.
4. It will make some contribution toward the development of apprenticeship in the field of retailing and small business management.
5. It will serve to call attention to the need for education for those engaged in or preparing for employment in the upper levels of distributive activities.
6. It will stimulate schools to offer more courses in selling, marketing, and other distributive subjects.

As recorded in table 4, Federal, State, and local expenditures in 1936–37, for vocational education under State plans, totaled $36,399,-286; for vocational rehabilitation the total was $3,319,096.

TABLE 4.—*Expenditures Under State Plans, for Vocational Education and Vocational Rehabilitation, Year Ended June 30, 1937* [1]

| Field of expenditure | Expenditure | | | State and local, per dollar of Federal money |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Total | Federal money | State and local money | |
| Vocational education | $36,399,286 | $10,013,669 | $26,385,617 | $2.63 |
| Vocational rehabilitation | 3,319,096 | 1,534,552 | 1,784,544 | 1.16 |

[1] Provisional figures.

# *Industrial Disputes*

## TREND OF STRIKES

PRELIMINARY estimates indicate substantially the same number of strikes (235) in April 1938 as in March (225). This represents about a 50-percent increase over the number of strikes in the preceding months of January or February. The number of workers involved in the April strikes was about 12 percent lower than in March and the number of man-days idle was approximately 19 percent less.

*Trend of Strikes, 1933 to April 1938* [1]

| Year and month | Number of strikes | | | | | Workers involved in strikes | | Man-days idle during month or year |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Continued from preceding month | Beginning in month or year | In progress during month | Ended in month | In effect at end of month | Beginning in month or year | In progress during month | |
| 1933 | | 1,695 | | | | 1,168,272 | | 16,872,128 |
| 1934 | | 1,856 | | | | 1,466,695 | | 19,591,949 |
| 1935 | | 2,014 | | | | 1,117,213 | | 15,456,337 |
| 1936 | | 2,172 | | | | 788,648 | | 13,901,956 |
| 1937 | | 4,740 | | | | 1,860,621 | | 28,424,857 |
| *1937* | | | | | | | | |
| January | 100 | 171 | 271 | 132 | 139 | 108,621 | 214,268 | 2,720,281 |
| February | 139 | 211 | 350 | 204 | 146 | 99,335 | 226,329 | 1,491,268 |
| March | 146 | 614 | 760 | 510 | 250 | 290,324 | 358,155 | 3,288,979 |
| April | 250 | 535 | 785 | 512 | 273 | 221,572 | 394,178 | 3,377,223 |
| May | 273 | 604 | 877 | 547 | 330 | 325,499 | 445,170 | 2,982,735 |
| June | 330 | 610 | 940 | 582 | 358 | 281,478 | 474,954 | 4,998,408 |
| July | 358 | 472 | 830 | 533 | 297 | 143,678 | 353,682 | 3,007,819 |
| August | 297 | 449 | 746 | 451 | 295 | 143,033 | 238,828 | 2,270,380 |
| September | 295 | 361 | 656 | 393 | 263 | 88,967 | 160,241 | 1,449,948 |
| October | 263 | 320 | 583 | 378 | 205 | 67,242 | 127,109 | 1,181,914 |
| November | 205 | 262 | 467 | 265 | 202 | 68,929 | 118,632 | 981,697 |
| December | 202 | 131 | 333 | 213 | 120 | 21,943 | 60,518 | 674,205 |
| *1938* | | | | | | | | |
| January | 120 | 140 | 260 | 150 | 110 | 32,066 | 52,589 | 470,965 |
| February | 110 | 150 | 260 | 159 | 101 | 50,576 | 73,875 | 492,788 |
| March [1] | 101 | 225 | 326 | 196 | 130 | 52,000 | 98,000 | 895,000 |
| April [1] | 130 | 235 | 365 | 220 | 145 | 46,000 | 77,000 | 725,000 |

[1] Strikes involving fewer than 6 workers or lasting less than 1 day are not included in this table nor in the following tables. Notices or leads regarding strikes are obtained by the Bureau from more than 650 daily papers, labor papers, and trade journals, as well as from all Government labor boards. Letters are written to representatives of parties in the disputes asking for detailed and authentic information. Since answers to some of these letters have not yet been received, the figures given for the late months are not final. This is particularly true with regard to figures for the last 2 months, and these should be considered as preliminary estimates.

As compared with April a year ago, the preliminary figures for April 1938 show decreases of 56 percent in number of strikes, 79 percent in number of workers involved, and a similar reduction in man-days of idleness.

The figures given in the accompanying table for March and April are based on newspaper reports and other information available as this issue goes to press. An analysis of strikes in each of these months, based on detailed and verified information, will appear in subsequent issues of the Monthly Labor Review.

## ANALYSIS OF STRIKES IN FEBRUARY 1938 [1]

DETAILED information has been obtained on 150 strikes which began in February 1938, involving a little more than 50,000 workers. There were 110 strikes which continued into February from preceding months, making a total of 260 strikes in progress during all or a part of the month. These strikes involved nearly 74,000 workers and resulted in nearly a half million man-days of idleness during February. The amount of idleness during strikes in February was only about one-third as great as in the corresponding month of 1937.

The greatest number of new strikes in any one industry group during February was 26 in the textile industries. There were 22 in retail and wholesale trade, 13 in transportation and communication, 10 in domestic and personal service, and 9 each in the food industries, lumber industries, and machinery manufacturing. The greatest number of man-days idle during strikes in progress in February were in three industry groups: Food industries, 121,000; textiles, 90,000; and lumber industries, 30,000. These three groups suffered nearly one-half of the entire time lost because of strikes during the month. The large amount of idleness in the food industries was due principally to the strike of pecan shellers in San Antonio, Tex.

TABLE 1.—*Strikes in February 1938, by Industry*

| Industry | Beginning in February | | In progress during February | | Man-days idle during February |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Number | Workers involved | Number | Workers involved | |
| **All industries** | **150** | **50,576** | **260** | **73,875** | **492,788** |
| **Iron and steel and their products, not including machinery** | **5** | **1,397** | **10** | **2,515** | **21,747** |
| Blast furnaces, steel works, and rolling mills | | | 2 | 711 | 5,065 |
| Bolts, nuts, washers, and rivets | 1 | 84 | 1 | 84 | 168 |
| Steam and hot-water heating apparatus and steam fittings | | | 1 | 140 | 2,660 |
| Stoves | 1 | 641 | 3 | 908 | 11,645 |
| Structural and ornamental metalwork | 1 | 65 | 1 | 65 | 325 |
| Tin cans and other tinware | 1 | 7 | 1 | 7 | 84 |
| Wirework | 1 | 600 | 1 | 600 | 1,800 |
| **Machinery, not including transportation equipment** | **9** | **1,044** | **11** | **1,197** | **10,883** |
| Agricultural implements | 3 | 261 | 3 | 261 | 2,873 |
| Electrical machinery, apparatus, and supplies | 1 | 99 | 1 | 99 | 1,089 |
| Foundry and machine-shop products | 5 | 684 | 6 | 829 | 6,873 |
| Other | | | 1 | 8 | 48 |

[1] Detailed information on a few strikes has not yet been received. (See footnote to preceding table.) Data on missing strikes will be included in the annual report.

TABLE 1.—*Strikes in February 1938, by Industry*—Continued

| Industry | Beginning in February | | In progress during February | | Man-days idle during February |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Number | Workers involved | Number | Workers involved | |
| **Transportation equipment** | **3** | **60** | **4** | **660** | 4,354 |
| Automobiles, bodies and parts | 2 | 26 | 3 | 626 | 4,252 |
| Shipbuilding | 1 | 34 | 1 | 34 | 102 |
| **Nonferrous metals and their products** | **1** | **17** | **6** | **1,558** | 23,717 |
| Aluminum manufacturers | | | 1 | 115 | 115 |
| Brass, bronze, and copper products | | | 1 | 23 | 460 |
| Lighting equipment | | | 1 | 1,200 | 19,200 |
| Silverware and plated ware | 1 | 17 | 2 | 103 | 1,719 |
| Smelting and refining—copper, lead, and zinc | | | 1 | 117 | 2,223 |
| **Lumber and allied products** | **9** | **636** | **14** | **3,913** | 30,200 |
| Furniture | 6 | 299 | 7 | 364 | 2,939 |
| Sawmills and logging camps | | | 3 | 3,112 | 22,840 |
| Other | 3 | 337 | 4 | 437 | 4,520 |
| **Stone, clay, and glass products** | **1** | **94** | **6** | **687** | 11,934 |
| Brick, tile, and terra cotta | | | 1 | 150 | 3,450 |
| Cement | | | 1 | 70 | 1,680 |
| Marble, granite, slate, and other stone products | | | 1 | 175 | 3,500 |
| Other | 1 | 94 | 3 | 292 | 3,304 |
| **Textiles and their products** | **26** | **29,337** | **39** | **31,985** | 90,272 |
| Fabrics: | | | | | |
| Carpets and rugs | 1 | 20 | 1 | 20 | 60 |
| Cotton goods | 1 | 574 | 4 | 1,626 | 17,929 |
| Dyeing and finishing textiles | 3 | 130 | 4 | 250 | 2,970 |
| Silk and rayon goods | 2 | 4,105 | 3 | 4,220 | 17,665 |
| Other | 2 | 163 | 2 | 163 | 1,128 |
| Wearing apparel: | | | | | |
| Clothing, men's | 2 | 230 | 2 | 230 | 1,135 |
| Clothing, women's | 3 | 701 | 6 | 867 | 3,711 |
| Men's furnishings | 1 | 40 | 2 | 130 | 170 |
| Hats, caps, and millinery | 3 | 1,263 | 3 | 1,263 | 3,753 |
| Shirts and collars | 1 | 261 | 1 | 261 | 1,044 |
| Hosiery | 2 | 21,635 | 3 | 22,045 | 26,555 |
| Knit goods | 5 | 215 | 7 | 310 | 2,752 |
| Other | | | 1 | 600 | 11,400 |
| **Leather and its manufactures** | **6** | **1,918** | **9** | **2,461** | 14,090 |
| Boots and shoes | 4 | 1,782 | 5 | 1,820 | 4,135 |
| Leather | 1 | 116 | 3 | 621 | 9,855 |
| Other leather goods | 1 | 20 | 1 | 20 | 100 |
| **Food and kindred products** | **9** | **534** | **17** | **6,249** | 120,937 |
| Baking | 4 | 173 | 8 | 491 | 3,501 |
| Canning and preserving | | | 1 | 84 | 336 |
| Confectionery | | | 1 | 290 | 870 |
| Slaughtering and meat packing | 3 | 69 | 4 | 92 | 917 |
| Other | 2 | 292 | 3 | 5,292 | 115,313 |
| **Tobacco manufactures** | | | **2** | **1,120** | 13,920 |
| Cigars | | | 2 | 1,120 | 13,920 |
| **Paper and printing** | **7** | **906** | **12** | **1,185** | 7,357 |
| Printing and publishing: | | | | | |
| Book and job | 2 | 56 | 3 | 73 | 979 |
| Newspapers and periodicals | 4 | 832 | 7 | 920 | 3,048 |
| Other | 1 | 18 | 2 | 192 | 3,330 |
| **Chemicals and allied products** | | | **2** | **677** | 7,009 |
| Paint and varnishes | | | 1 | 227 | 3,859 |
| Other | | | 1 | 450 | 3,150 |
| **Rubber products** | **2** | **412** | **3** | **464** | 1,292 |
| Rubber tires and inner tubes | 1 | 360 | 1 | 360 | 720 |
| Other rubber goods | 1 | 52 | 2 | 104 | 572 |
| **Miscellaneous manufacturing** | **4** | **5,523** | **7** | **5,575** | 30,913 |
| Furriers and fur factories | 1 | 5,500 | 1 | 5,500 | 30,000 |
| Other | 3 | 23 | 6 | 75 | 913 |

TABLE 1.—*Strikes in February 1938, by Industry*—Continued

| Industry | Beginning in February | | In progress during February | | Man-days idle during February |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Number | Workers involved | Number | Workers involved | |
| **Extraction of minerals** | **2** | **1,600** | **7** | **2,881** | **21,714** |
| Coal mining, anthracite | | | 1 | 230 | 4,370 |
| Coal mining, bituminous | 2 | 1,600 | 4 | 2,365 | 16,950 |
| Metalliferous mining | | | 1 | 250 | 250 |
| Crude-petroleum producing | | | 1 | 36 | 144 |
| **Transportation and communication** | **13** | **2,650** | **17** | **3,067** | **20,034** |
| Water transportation | 4 | 436 | 6 | 658 | 8,173 |
| Motortruck transportation | 1 | 64 | 3 | 259 | 1,909 |
| Motorbus transportation | 1 | 16 | 1 | 16 | 96 |
| Taxicabs and miscellaneous | 5 | 647 | 5 | 647 | 6,492 |
| Electric railroad | 2 | 1,487 | 2 | 1,487 | 3,364 |
| **Trade** | **22** | **2,060** | **38** | **3,824** | **26,495** |
| Wholesale | 4 | 644 | 7 | 960 | 2,058 |
| Retail | 18 | 1,416 | 31 | 2,864 | 24,437 |
| **Domestic and personal service** | **10** | **538** | **17** | **915** | **10,187** |
| Hotels, restaurants, and boarding houses | 4 | 50 | 6 | 203 | 3,169 |
| Laundries | 3 | 336 | 6 | 448 | 5,297 |
| Dyeing, cleaning, and pressing | 1 | 118 | 1 | 118 | 118 |
| Elevator and maintenance workers (when not attached to specific industry) | 2 | 34 | 3 | 91 | 558 |
| Other | | | 1 | 55 | 1,045 |
| **Professional service** | **4** | **86** | **5** | **206** | **3,520** |
| Recreation and amusement | 2 | 67 | 3 | 187 | 3,465 |
| Semiprofessional, attendants, and helpers | 2 | 19 | 2 | 19 | 55 |
| **Building and construction** | **7** | **335** | **19** | **954** | **11,021** |
| Buildings, exclusive of P. W. A | 4 | 152 | 10 | 297 | 1,212 |
| All other construction (bridges, docks, etc., and P. W. A. buildings) | 3 | 183 | 9 | 657 | 9,809 |
| **Agriculture, and fishing** | | | 1 | 25 | 450 |
| Agriculture | | | 1 | 25 | 450 |
| **W. P. A., relief, and resettlement projects** | **5** | **1,258** | **7** | **1,508** | **8,664** |
| **Other nonmanufacturing industries** | **5** | **171** | **7** | **249** | **2,079** |

New York's 35 new strikes during February were more than double the number in any other State. Pennsylvania experienced 17, California 10, Ohio 9, and Illinois and Wisconsin 7 each. The most man-days of idleness because of strikes in February were in Texas (115,000), New York (96,000), and Pennsylvania (38,000). The large number in Texas was due to the strike of pecan shellers at San Antonio which was in progress during the entire month.

Six of the 260 strikes in progress during the month extended across State lines and involved workers in two or more States. The largest of these was the strike of hosiery workers in Pennsylvania, New Jersey, and New York, which began February 28 and was settled early in March.

TABLE 2.—*Strikes in February 1938, by States*

| State | Beginning in February | | In progress during February | | Man-days idle during February |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Number | Workers involved | Number | Workers involved | |
| All States | 150 | 50,576 | 260 | 73,875 | 492,788 |
| Alabama | | | 5 | 1,027 | 18,393 |
| Arizona | 1 | 60 | 1 | 60 | 420 |
| Arkansas | 2 | 47 | 2 | 47 | 227 |
| California | 10 | 1,156 | 21 | 2,757 | 26,081 |
| Connecticut | | | 1 | 115 | 115 |
| Delaware | 1 | 60 | 1 | 60 | 120 |
| District of Columbia | 3 | 192 | 4 | 208 | 1,300 |
| Florida | 1 | 23 | 3 | 526 | 5,240 |
| Illinois | 7 | 1,152 | 15 | 2,585 | 26,364 |
| Indiana | 5 | 129 | 7 | 903 | 15,349 |
| Iowa | 5 | 250 | 6 | 293 | 2,197 |
| Kentucky | | | 1 | 300 | 2,850 |
| Maryland | 2 | 4,105 | 3 | 4,126 | 17,613 |
| Massachusetts | 5 | 2,362 | 7 | 2,532 | 12,846 |
| Michigan | 6 | 1,404 | 7 | 1,427 | 6,574 |
| Minnesota | 6 | 2,336 | 7 | 2,366 | 12,078 |
| Missouri | 4 | 78 | 10 | 1,059 | 7,614 |
| Montana | 1 | 6 | 2 | 36 | 708 |
| Nebraska | 1 | 49 | 1 | 49 | 1,078 |
| Nevada | 1 | 49 | 1 | 49 | 98 |
| New Hampshire | | | 1 | 425 | 850 |
| New Jersey | 5 | 1,560 | 12 | 2,372 | 9,278 |
| New York | 35 | 8,753 | 58 | 12,045 | 95,703 |
| North Carolina | 1 | 129 | 2 | 256 | 2,929 |
| Ohio | 9 | 736 | 12 | 836 | 3,769 |
| Oklahoma | 1 | 25 | 4 | 182 | 1,231 |
| Oregon | 1 | 96 | 3 | 3,023 | 19,525 |
| Pennsylvania | 17 | 2,933 | 29 | 4,769 | 38,274 |
| South Carolina | | | 1 | 175 | 3,500 |
| South Dakota | | | 1 | 54 | 108 |
| Tennessee | 3 | 362 | 5 | 521 | 5,402 |
| Texas | 2 | 26 | 3 | 5,026 | 115,272 |
| Utah | | | 1 | 250 | 250 |
| Virginia | 2 | 35 | 3 | 43 | 182 |
| Washington | | | 5 | 540 | 3,502 |
| West Virginia | | | 1 | 70 | 1,680 |
| Wisconsin | 7 | 714 | 8 | 1,014 | 9,283 |
| Interstate | 6 | 21,749 | 6 | 21,749 | 24,785 |

The average number of workers involved in the 150 strikes beginning in February was 337. Nearly 69 percent of the strikes involved less than 100 workers each; 27 percent involved from 100 to 1,000; and 6 strikes (4 percent) involved 1,000 or more each. In only one strike were as many as 10,000 workers involved. That was the short strike of hosiery workers in Pennsylvania, New Jersey, and New York.

In nearly 51 percent of the strikes beginning in February the major issues involved were recognition and other union-organization matters. These strikes were small, on the average, and included only 11 percent of the total workers involved. In 30 percent of the strikes the major issues were wages and hours, and these strikes included two-thirds of the total workers involved.

Decreases in wages were the major issues in 12 strikes, including 44 percent of all the workers involved in strikes in February. This was a greater number of strikes in protest against wage decreases than had occurred in any single month for more than a year. The large number of workers in this group of strikes was accounted for principally by the large hosiery strike referred to above.

TABLE 3.—*Strikes Beginning in February 1938, Classified by Number of Workers Involved*

| Industry group | Total | Number of strikes in which the number of workers involved was— | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | 6 and under 20 | 20 and under 100 | 100 and under 500 | 500 and under 1,000 | 1,000 and under 5,000 | 5,000 and under 10,000 | 10,000 and over |
| All industries | 150 | 37 | 66 | 33 | 8 | 4 | 1 | 1 |
| *Manufacturing* | | | | | | | | |
| Iron and steel and their products, not including machinery | 5 | 1 | 2 | ------ | 2 | ------ | ------ | ------ |
| Machinery, not including transportation equipment | 9 | 1 | 4 | 4 | ------ | ------ | ------ | ------ |
| Transportation equipment | 3 | 2 | 1 | ------ | ------ | ------ | ------ | ------ |
| Nonferrous metals and their products | 1 | 1 | ------ | ------ | ------ | ------ | ------ | ------ |
| Lumber and allied products | 9 | 2 | 4 | 3 | ------ | ------ | ------ | ------ |
| Stone, clay, and glass products | 1 | ------ | 1 | ------ | ------ | ------ | ------ | ------ |
| Textiles and their products | 26 | 2 | 13 | 6 | 2 | 2 | ------ | 1 |
| Leather and its manufactures | 6 | ------ | 2 | 3 | ------ | 1 | ------ | ------ |
| Food and kindred products | 9 | 4 | 3 | 2 | ------ | ------ | ------ | ------ |
| Paper and printing | 7 | 4 | 2 | ------ | 1 | ------ | ------ | ------ |
| Rubber products | 2 | ------ | 1 | 1 | ------ | ------ | ------ | ------ |
| Miscellaneous manufactures | 4 | 3 | ------ | ------ | ------ | ------ | 1 | ------ |
| *Nonmanufacturing* | | | | | | | | |
| Extraction of minerals | 2 | ------ | ------ | ------ | 2 | ------ | ------ | ------ |
| Transportation and communication | 13 | 1 | 7 | 4 | ------ | 1 | ------ | ------ |
| Trade | 22 | 4 | 13 | 4 | 1 | ------ | ------ | ------ |
| Domestic and personal service | 10 | 5 | 3 | 2 | ------ | ------ | ------ | ------ |
| Professional service | 4 | 3 | 1 | ------ | ------ | ------ | ------ | ------ |
| Building and construction | 7 | 3 | 4 | ------ | ------ | ------ | ------ | ------ |
| Works Progress Administration, relief, and resettlement | 5 | ------ | 1 | 4 | ------ | ------ | ------ | ------ |
| Other nonmanufacturing industries | 5 | 1 | 4 | ------ | ------ | ------ | ------ | ------ |

In 19 percent of the strikes, including 21 percent of the workers, the major issues were miscellaneous matters including jurisdiction, union rivalry, and various grievances concerning working conditions and rules. Among the specific grievances were such questions as failure to pay wages promptly, equal division of work, seniority, objections to lay-off policies, and demands for dismissal of employees who would not pay their union dues.

TABLE 4.—*Major issues involved in strikes beginning in February 1938*

| Major issues | Strikes | | Workers involved | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Number | Percent of total | Number | Percent of total |
| All issues | 150 | 100.0 | 50,576 | 100.0 |
| Wages and hours | 45 | 30.0 | 34,168 | 67.6 |
| Wage increase | 23 | 15.3 | 5,336 | 10.6 |
| Wage decrease | 12 | 8.0 | 22,281 | 44.0 |
| Wage increase, hour decrease | 9 | 6.0 | 5,751 | 11.4 |
| Hour decrease | 1 | .7 | 800 | 1.6 |
| Union organization | 76 | 50.7 | 5,719 | 11.3 |
| Recognition | 7 | 4.7 | 372 | .7 |
| Recognition and wages | 20 | 13.3 | 1,450 | 2.9 |
| Recognition, wages, and hours | 26 | 17.3 | 1,822 | 3.5 |
| Closed shop | 15 | 10.0 | 1,495 | 3.0 |
| Discrimination | 4 | 2.7 | 392 | .8 |
| Other | 4 | 2.7 | 188 | .4 |
| Miscellaneous | 29 | 19.3 | 10,689 | 21.1 |
| Sympathy | 1 | .7 | 94 | .2 |
| Rival unions or factions | 3 | 2.0 | 252 | .5 |
| Jurisdiction | 3 | 2.0 | 187 | .4 |
| Other | 22 | 14.6 | 10,156 | 20.0 |

Of the 260 strikes in progress during February, 159 were terminated during the month with an average duration of about 27 calendar days. Approximately 38 percent of the strikes lasted less than a week; 34 percent lasted from a week to a month; and 28 percent lasted for a month or more. Thirteen strikes in the last group had been in progress for 3 months or more. Practically all of these disputes were with individual companies and none of them were widespread strikes.

TABLE 5.—*Duration of Strikes Ending in February 1938*

| Industry group | Total | Number of strikes with duration of— | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | Less than 1 week | 1 week and less than ½ month | ½ and less than 1 month | 1 and less than 2 months | 2 and less than 3 months | 3 months or more |
| All industries | 159 | 60 | 33 | 22 | 23 | 8 | 13 |
| *Manufacturing* | | | | | | | |
| Iron and steel and their products, not including machinery | 5 | 1 | 2 | 2 | | | |
| Machinery, not including transportation equipment | 8 | 1 | 4 | 2 | 1 | | |
| Transportation equipment | 3 | 2 | | | | | 1 |
| Nonferrous metals and their products | 2 | | | | 2 | | |
| Lumber and allied products | 7 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 2 | |
| Stone, clay, and glass products | 2 | | | 1 | | | 1 |
| Textiles and their products | 22 | 12 | 4 | 3 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| Leather and its manufactures | 6 | 2 | 1 | 2 | | | 1 |
| Food and kindred products | 10 | 4 | 3 | | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| Tobacco manufactures | 1 | | | 1 | | | |
| Paper and printing | 7 | 2 | | 2 | | 1 | 2 |
| Chemicals and allied products | 2 | | | | 1 | 1 | |
| Rubber products | 3 | 2 | | | 1 | | |
| Miscellaneous manufactures | 3 | 1 | 2 | | | | |
| *Nonmanufacturing* | | | | | | | |
| Extraction of minerals | 5 | 1 | 1 | 1 | | | 2 |
| Transportation and communication | 10 | 7 | 1 | | 2 | | |
| Trade | 24 | 10 | 4 | 2 | 3 | 2 | 3 |
| Domestic and personal service | 14 | 6 | 2 | 1 | 4 | | 1 |
| Professional service | 2 | 1 | 1 | | | | |
| Building and construction | 12 | 3 | 4 | 2 | 3 | | |
| Agriculture and fishing | 1 | | | | 1 | | |
| W. P. A., relief, and resettlement projects | 4 | | 1 | 1 | 2 | | |
| Other nonmanufacturing industries | 6 | 4 | 2 | | | | |

In one-third of the strikes which ended in February, employers and representatives of organized workers were successful in negotiating settlements without the assistance of a third party. About 44 percent of the total workers involved were in these strikes. In 41 percent of the strikes, including 40 percent of the workers involved, Government conciliators or labor boards assisted in negotiating settlements. Twenty percent of the strikes, including 11 percent of the workers involved, were terminated without settlement of the disputed issues. In most of these cases the workers simply discontinued their strike action and returned to work, or they lost their jobs entirely when employers hired new workers to fill their places, moved, or went out of business.

TABLE 6.—*Methods of Negotiating Settlements of Strikes Ending in February 1938*

| Negotiations toward settlements carried on by— | Strikes | | Workers involved | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Number | Percent of total | Number | Percent of total |
| Total | 159 | 100.0 | 26,467 | 100.0 |
| Employers and workers directly | 2 | 1.3 | 400 | 1.5 |
| Employers and representatives of organized workers directly | 53 | 33.3 | 11,593 | 43.7 |
| Government conciliators or labor boards | 65 | 40.9 | 10,469 | 39.6 |
| Private conciliators or arbitrators | 7 | 4.4 | 1,050 | 4.0 |
| Terminated without formal settlement | 32 | 20.1 | 2,955 | 11.2 |

Results of the 159 strikes which ended in February 1938 are indicated in tables 7 and 8. The number of workers who obtained substantial gains as a result of the strikes was about the same as the number who obtained compromise settlements and the number who gained little or nothing—roughly one-third in each group. In terms of strikes about 41 percent of them were substantially won, 29½ percent compromised, and 24 percent brought little or no gains to the workers involved.

The data in table 8 indicate a much greater degree of success, from the workers' point of view, in the wage-and-hour strikes than in those principally over union-organization matters. This was true both in terms of strikes and of workers involved. Of the strikes in which wages and hours were the major issues, the workers substantially won 49 percent, compromised 38 percent, and lost 13 percent. Of the strikes over union-organization matters, they won 41 percent, compromised 25 percent, and lost 34 percent. Of the workers involved in the wage-and-hour disputes, 56 percent won, 38 percent obtained compromise settlements, and 6 percent gained little or nothing. The corresponding proportions of workers in the union-organization disputes were 21, 44, and 35 percent.

TABLE 7.—*Results of Strikes Ending in February 1938*

| Results | Strikes | | Workers involved | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Number | Percent of total | Number | Percent of total |
| Total | 159 | 100.0 | 26,467 | 100.0 |
| Substantial gains to workers | 65 | 40.9 | 8,390 | 31.7 |
| Partial gains or compromises | 47 | 29.5 | 8,226 | 31.1 |
| Little or no gains to workers | 38 | 23.9 | 8,931 | 33 7 |
| Jurisdiction, rival union or faction settlements | 9 | 5.7 | 920 | 3.5 |

TABLE 8.—*Results of Strikes Ending in February 1938, in Relation to Major Issues Involved*

| Major issues | Totals | Strikes resulting in— | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | Substantial gains to workers | Partial gains or compromises | Little or no gains to workers | Jurisdiction, rival union or faction settlements |
| | Number of strikes | | | | |
| All issues | 159 | 65 | 47 | 38 | 9 |
| Wages and hours | 39 | 19 | 15 | 5 | |
| Wage increase | 26 | 13 | 11 | 2 | |
| Wage decrease | 9 | 3 | 3 | 3 | |
| Wage increase, hour decrease | 3 | 2 | 1 | | |
| Hour decrease | 1 | 1 | | | |
| Union organization | 83 | 34 | 21 | 28 | |
| Recognition | 10 | 4 | 2 | 4 | |
| Recognition and wages | 16 | 7 | 5 | 4 | |
| Recognition, wages, and hours | 26 | 11 | 6 | 9 | |
| Closed shop | 19 | 8 | 4 | 7 | |
| Discrimination | 9 | 3 | 2 | 4 | |
| Other | 3 | 1 | 2 | | |
| Miscellaneous | 37 | 12 | 11 | 5 | 9 |
| Rival unions or factions | 6 | | | | 6 |
| Jurisdiction | 3 | | | | 3 |
| Other | 28 | 12 | 11 | 5 | |
| | Number of workers involved | | | | |
| All issues | 26,467 | 8,390 | 8,226 | 8,931 | 920 |
| Wages and hours | 7,855 | 4,379 | 2,976 | 500 | |
| Wage increase | 6,143 | 3,299 | 2,624 | 220 | |
| Wage decrease | 851 | 227 | 344 | 280 | |
| Wage increase, hour decrease | 61 | 53 | 8 | | |
| Hour decrease | 800 | 800 | | | |
| Union organization | 7,673 | 1,610 | 3,402 | 2,661 | |
| Recognition | 990 | 359 | 206 | 425 | |
| Recognition and wages | 1,266 | 103 | 998 | 165 | |
| Recognition, wages, and hours | 1,818 | 655 | 604 | 559 | |
| Closed shop | 1,724 | 398 | 528 | 798 | |
| Discrimination | 995 | 65 | 216 | 714 | |
| Other | 880 | 30 | 850 | | |
| Miscellaneous | 10,939 | 2,401 | 1,848 | 5,770 | 920 |
| Rival unions or factions | 620 | | | | 620 |
| Jurisdiction | 300 | | | | 300 |
| Other | 10,019 | 2,401 | 1,848 | 5,770 | |

## ACTIVITIES OF UNITED STATES CONCILIATION SERVICE, APRIL 1938

THE United States Conciliation Service, in April 1938, disposed of 312 situations, involving 194,516 workers. These matters were referred to the Service by employees, employers, and other interested parties.

Labor disputes, such as strikes, threatened strikes, lock-outs, and controversies, accounted for 153 situations, involving 185,429 workers.

The remaining 159 situations, involving 9,087 workers, were services rendered, such as arbitrations, conferences regarding labor conditions, and the adjustment of miscellaneous complaints.

The facilities of the Conciliation Service during April were utilized in 39 States, the District of Columbia, and Alaska, as shown in table 1.

Table 2 shows the activities of the Service were used in 24 major industrial fields such as textile, maritime, agriculture, transportation, and others.

TABLE 1.—*Situations Disposed of by United States Conciliation Service, April 1938, by States*

| States | Disputes | | Other situations | | Total | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Number | Workers involved | Number | Workers involved | Number | Workers involved |
| United States | 153 | 185,429 | 159 | 9,087 | 312 | 194,516 |
| Alabama | 8 | 1,565 | 9 | 568 | 17 | 2,133 |
| Alaska | | | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| Arizona | 1 | 300 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 301 |
| Arkansas | 2 | 260 | | | 2 | 260 |
| California | 4 | 2,298 | 17 | 28 | 21 | 2,326 |
| Connecticut | 3 | 351 | 4 | 4 | 7 | 355 |
| Delaware | 1 | 75 | | | 1 | 75 |
| District of Columbia | 4 | 270 | 28 | 33 | 32 | 303 |
| Florida | 2 | 2,503 | 2 | 2 | 4 | 2,505 |
| Georgia | 3 | 884 | 4 | 4 | 7 | 888 |
| Illinois | 7 | 2,256 | 9 | 11 | 16 | 2,267 |
| Indiana | 4 | 1,371 | 1 | 1 | 5 | 1,372 |
| Iowa | 2 | 145 | 1 | 1 | 3 | 146 |
| Kentucky | 2 | 556 | 4 | 4 | 6 | 560 |
| Louisiana | 2 | 198 | | | 2 | 198 |
| Maine | | | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| Maryland | | | 4 | 4 | 4 | 4 |
| Massachusetts | 5 | 3,497 | 2 | 2 | 7 | 3,499 |
| Michigan | 5 | 76,190 | 3 | 3 | 8 | 76,193 |
| Minnesota | 5 | 2,731 | 1 | 1 | 6 | 2,732 |
| Mississippi | | | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| Missouri | 10 | 36,443 | 5 | 5 | 15 | 36,448 |
| Montana | 1 | 30 | | | 1 | 30 |
| Nebraska | 1 | 600 | | | 1 | 600 |
| Nevada | | | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| New Jersey | 2 | 715 | 1 | 1 | 3 | 716 |
| New York | 9 | 18,369 | 14 | 1,618 | 23 | 19,987 |
| North Carolina | 4 | 3,324 | 3 | 3 | 7 | 3,327 |
| Ohio | 19 | 8,881 | 6 | 6 | 25 | 8,887 |
| Oklahoma | 1 | 133 | | | 1 | 133 |
| Oregon | | | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| Pennsylvania | 23 | 2,233 | 10 | 416 | 33 | 2,649 |
| Rhode Island | 1 | 370 | | | 1 | 370 |
| South Carolina | | | 11 | 5,053 | 11 | 5,053 |
| Tennessee | 7 | 6,469 | 4 | 4 | 11 | 6,473 |
| Texas | 2 | 224 | 1 | 1 | 3 | 225 |
| Vermont | | | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| Virginia | 4 | 5,879 | 4 | 4 | 8 | 5,883 |
| Washington | 6 | 6,094 | 2 | 1,301 | 8 | 7,395 |
| West Virginia | 1 | 44 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 45 |
| Wisconsin | 2 | 171 | 1 | 1 | 3 | 172 |

TABLE 2.—*Situations Disposed of by United States Conciliation Service, April 1938, by Industries*

| Industries | Disputes | | Other situations | | Total | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Number | Workers involved | Number | Workers involved | Number | Workers involved |
| All industries | 153 | 185,429 | 159 | 9,087 | 312 | 194,516 |
| Agriculture | 1 | 103 | 4 | 4 | 5 | 107 |
| Automobile | 6 | 71,369 | 2 | 2 | 8 | 71,371 |
| Building trades | 23 | 42,011 | 12 | 12 | 35 | 42,023 |
| Chemical | 3 | 614 | 2 | 2 | 5 | 616 |
| Communications | 1 | 1,300 | 5 | 16 | 6 | 1,316 |
| Domestic and personal services | 4 | 1,265 | 2 | 2 | 6 | 1,267 |
| Food | 18 | 21,904 | 7 | 9 | 25 | 21,913 |
| Iron and steel | 5 | 1,340 | 7 | 567 | 12 | 1,907 |
| Leather | 1 | 650 | 6 | 6 | 7 | 656 |
| Lumber and furniture | 4 | 711 | 1 | 1 | 5 | 712 |
| Machinery | 8 | 1,854 | 4 | 4 | 12 | 1,858 |
| Maritime | 5 | 11,344 | 7 | 1,308 | 12 | 12,652 |
| Mining | 2 | 1,536 | 1 | 1 | 3 | 1,537 |
| Nonferrous metals | 2 | 252 | | | 2 | 252 |
| Paper and printing | 3 | 341 | 2 | 2 | 5 | 343 |
| Petroleum | 7 | 2,470 | 2 | 3 | 9 | 2,473 |
| Professional services | 1 | 109 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 110 |
| Rubber | 5 | 1,295 | 2 | 2 | 7 | 1,297 |
| Stone, clay, and glass | 4 | 790 | 2 | 2 | 6 | 792 |
| Textiles | 18 | 4,485 | 38 | 7,078 | 56 | 11,564 |
| Tobacco | 1 | 2,225 | | | 1 | 2,225 |
| Trade | 14 | 3,177 | 8 | 19 | 22 | 3,196 |
| Transportation | 14 | 3,083 | 18 | 18 | 32 | 3,101 |
| Utilities | 2 | 10,500 | | | 1 | 10,500 |
| Unclassified | 1 | 700 | 26 | 28 | 27 | 728 |

# *Labor Turn-Over*

## LABOR TURN-OVER IN MANUFACTURING, MARCH 1938

A FURTHER decline in the lay-off rate in manufacturing plants in March was indicated by the Bureau of Labor Statistics' monthly survey of labor turn-over. From the high point (7.77 per 100 employees) reached in December 1937 there has been a gradual and continuous decrease in the number of lay-offs reported each month. The March lay-off rate of 3.74 per 100 employees was, however, still more than twice as high as in March 1937. Although a sharp increase was shown in the quit rate in March as compared with February, the number of quits was less than half as high as was reported a year ago. The discharge rate was the same as in February, but much lower than in March 1937. Workers were hired at the same rate (3.13 per 100 employees) in March as in February.

Lower lay-off rates than in February were indicated in 8 of the 20 industries for which separate rates are shown. The accession rates were higher than in February in 11 instances. Compared with March 1937, higher lay-off rates prevailed in 18 industries. The accession rates were higher in five.

### *All Manufacturing*

The Bureau of Labor Statistics' survey of labor turn-over covers more than 5,000 representative manufacturing establishments which, in March, employed nearly 2,250,000 workers. The rates represent the number of changes in personnel per 100 employees on the pay rolls during the month.

The rates shown in table 1 are compiled from reports received from representative plants in 144 industries. In the 20 industries for which separate rates are shown (see table 2) reports were received from representative plants employing at least 25 percent of the workers in each industry.

Table 1 shows the total separation rate classified into quit, discharge, and lay-off rates and the accession rate for each month of 1937 and for the first 3 months in 1938 for manufacturing as a whole. The average monthly rates for 1937 are also presented.

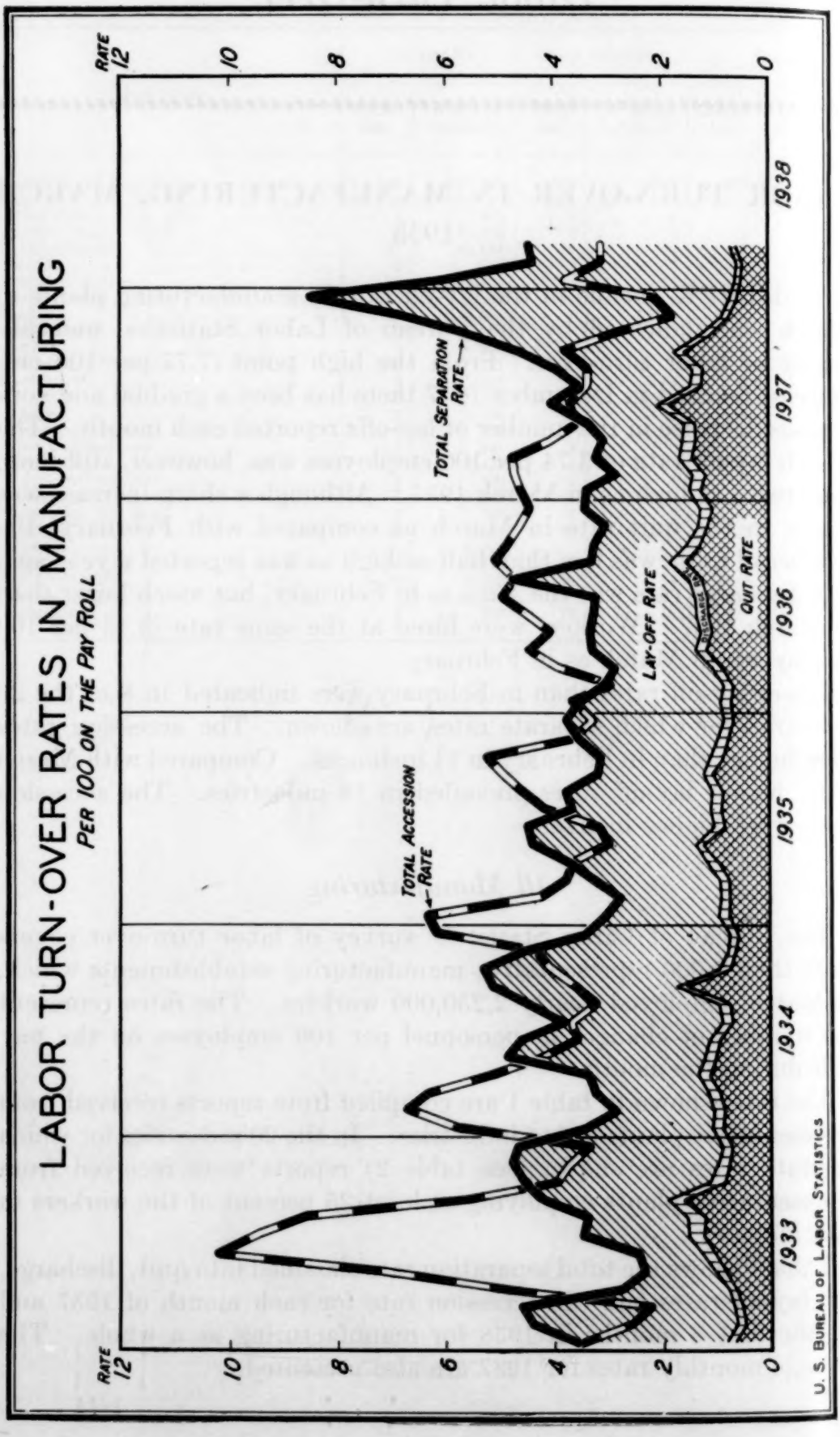
LABOR TURN-OVER RATES IN MANUFACTURING
PER 100 ON THE PAY ROLL
RATE
12
10
8
6
4
2
0
TOTAL ACCESSION RATE
TOTAL SEPARATION RATE
LAY-OFF RATE
QUIT RATE
1933
1934
1935
1936
1937
1938
U. S. BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS

TABLE 1.—*Monthly Labor Turn-Over Rates (per 100 Employees) in Representative Factories in 144 Industries*

| Class of rate and year | Jan. | Feb. | Mar. | Apr. | May | June | July | Aug. | Sept. | Oct. | Nov. | Dec. | Average |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Quit rate: | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1938 | 0.52 | 0.49 | 0.61 | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1937 | 1.27 | 1.19 | 1.43 | 1.38 | 1.37 | 1.89 | 1.25 | 1.23 | 1.59 | 1.05 | 0.72 | 0.60 | 1.25 |
| Discharge rate: | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1938 | .11 | .11 | .11 | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1937 | .21 | .22 | .24 | .23 | .21 | .19 | .21 | .19 | .19 | .19 | .16 | .14 | .20 |
| Lay-off rate: [1] | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1938 | 5.45 | 3.79 | 3.74 | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1937 | 1.90 | 1.44 | 1.53 | 1.48 | 1.79 | 1.94 | 2.06 | 2.57 | 2.84 | 4.45 | 5.99 | 7.77 | 2.98 |
| Total separation rate: | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1938 | 6.08 | 4.39 | 4.46 | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1937 | 3.38 | 2.85 | 3.20 | 3.09 | 3.37 | 4.02 | 3.52 | 3.99 | 4.62 | 5.69 | 6.87 | 8.51 | 4.43 |
| Accession rate: | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1938 | 3.78 | 3.13 | 3.13 | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1937 | 4.60 | 4.71 | 4.74 | 4.04 | 3.56 | 3.69 | 3.36 | 3.36 | 3.78 | 2.84 | 1.79 | 2.12 | 3.55 |

[1] Including temporary, indeterminate, and permanent lay-offs.

## *Twenty Industries*

Detailed turn-over rates for 20 selected manufacturing industries are listed in table 2, which shows the number of quits, discharges, and lay-offs, total separations, and total accessions per 100 employees in reporting firms in March and February 1938 and March 1937.

TABLE 2.—*Monthly Turn-Over Rates (per 100 Employees) in Specified Industries*

| Class of rate | Mar. 1938 | Feb. 1938 | Mar. 1937 | Mar. 1938 | Feb. 1938 | Mar. 1937 | Mar. 1938 | Feb. 1938 | Mar. 1937 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Automobiles and bodies | | | Automobile parts | | | Boots and shoes | | |
| Quit | 0.65 | 0.47 | 1.50 | 0.49 | 0.32 | 1.90 | 0.73 | 0.60 | 1.31 |
| Discharge | .14 | .04 | .23 | .10 | .09 | .43 | .12 | .10 | .26 |
| Lay-off | 11.57 | 6.04 | 6.25 | 8.93 | 11.73 | 6.77 | 1.42 | 1.12 | 1.47 |
| Total separation | 12.36 | 6.55 | 7.98 | 9.52 | 12.14 | 9.10 | 2.27 | 1.82 | 3.04 |
| Accession | 2.44 | 2.38 | 4.61 | 6.61 | 5.84 | 7.92 | 2.44 | 4.27 | 3.18 |
| | Brick, tile, and terra cotta | | | Cigars and cigarettes | | | Cotton manufacturing | | |
| Quit | 0.47 | 0.50 | 1.45 | 0.81 | 0.89 | 1.48 | 0.82 | 0.84 | 1.68 |
| Discharge | .13 | .16 | .37 | .13 | .13 | .17 | .15 | .11 | .30 |
| Lay-off | 6.07 | 8.85 | 2.01 | 2.68 | .51 | 1.69 | 3.09 | 4.14 | 1.01 |
| Total separation | 6.67 | 9.51 | 3.83 | 3.62 | 1.53 | 3.34 | 4.06 | 5.09 | 2.99 |
| Accession | 11.16 | 6.10 | 12.80 | 2.94 | 6.22 | 4.11 | 3.49 | 3.93 | 3.86 |
| | Electrical machinery | | | Foundries and machine shops | | | Furniture | | |
| Quit | 0.65 | 0.54 | 1.11 | 0.39 | 0.43 | 1.67 | 0.39 | 0.59 | 1.48 |
| Discharge | .05 | .09 | .17 | .09 | .13 | .43 | .30 | .12 | .37 |
| Lay-off | 6.00 | 5.48 | 3.91 | 5.39 | 4.36 | 1.00 | 4.12 | 4.35 | 2.52 |
| Total separation | 6.70 | 6.11 | 5.19 | 5.87 | 4.92 | 3.10 | 4.81 | 5.06 | 4.37 |
| Accession | 1.42 | 1.04 | 6.11 | 2.10 | 1.49 | 7.07 | 3.40 | 6.05 | 5.00 |

TABLE 2. *Monthly Turn-Over Rates (per 100 Employees) in Specified Industries*—Continued

| Class of rate | Mar. 1938 | Feb. 1938 | Mar. 1937 | Mar. 1938 | Feb. 1938 | Mar. 1937 | Mar. 1938 | Feb. 1938 | Mar. 1937 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Hardware | | | Iron and steel | | | Knit goods | | |
| Quit | 0.56 | 0.36 | 3.67 | 0.56 | 0.44 | 0.97 | 0.62 | 0.50 | 6.21 |
| Discharge | .06 | .09 | .26 | .08 | 0.15 | .09 | .07 | .10 | .11 |
| Lay-off | 3.11 | 2.19 | 1.00 | 2.63 | 3.23 | .53 | 3.07 | 2.49 | .97 |
| Total separation | 3.73 | 2.64 | 4.93 | 3.27 | 3.82 | 1.59 | 3.76 | 3.09 | 7.29 |
| Accession | 1.32 | .97 | 4.97 | .92 | 1.46 | 5.47 | 3.91 | 4.19 | 3.78 |
| | Men's clothing | | | Petroleum refining | | | Radios and phonographs | | |
| Quit | 0.61 | 0.48 | 1.09 | 0.25 | 0.27 | 0.70 | 0.85 | 0.86 | (1) |
| Discharge | .03 | .05 | .16 | .06 | .07 | .11 | .06 | .15 | (1) |
| Lay-off | 4.19 | 3.31 | 1.35 | 1.42 | 2.22 | 1.40 | 11.87 | 7.47 | (1) |
| Total separation | 4.83 | 3.84 | 2.60 | 1.73 | 2.56 | 2.21 | 12.78 | 8.48 | (1) |
| Accession | 4.33 | 3.90 | 2.48 | 1.33 | .88 | 3.84 | 2.57 | 3.07 | (1) |
| | Rayon | | | Rubber tires | | | Sawmills | | |
| Quit | 0.51 | 0.32 | 0.90 | 0.83 | 0.58 | 0.73 | 1.67 | 0.78 | 2.00 |
| Discharge | .69 | .33 | .18 | .05 | .02 | .09 | .25 | .24 | .36 |
| Lay-off | 4.28 | 1.68 | .32 | 3.74 | 5.60 | .46 | 4.10 | 3.71 | 2.54 |
| Total separation | 5.48 | 2.33 | 1.40 | 4.62 | 6.20 | 1.28 | 6.02 | 4.73 | 4.90 |
| Accession | 2.46 | 6.07 | 3.27 | 1.37 | 1.31 | 1.26 | 9.51 | 6.88 | 10.01 |
| | Slaughtering and meat packing | | | Woolen and worsted goods | | | | | |
| Quit | 0.51 | 0.55 | 0.86 | 1.19 | 0.35 | 0.92 | ------ | ------ | ------ |
| Discharge | .19 | .15 | .27 | .08 | .04 | .17 | ------ | ------ | ------ |
| Lay-off | 8.23 | 12.73 | 5.92 | 17.05 | 9.05 | 6.38 | ------ | ------ | ------ |
| Total separation | 8.93 | 13.43 | 7.05 | 18.32 | 9.44 | 7.47 | ------ | ------ | ------ |
| Accession | 5.69 | 5.18 | 5.47 | 3.93 | 5.30 | 2.33 | ------ | ------ | ------ |

[1] No data available.

## LABOR TURN-OVER IN PETROLEUM REFINING, 1936 AND 1937

TURN-OVER rates in petroleum refineries in 1936 and 1937 were lower than the rates for all manufacturing for the same years. In 1937 the total separation rate in the petroleum industry was 34.00 per 100 employees, virtually the same as in 1936, when the rate was 33.99, and noticeably less than the all-manufacturing rate. The accession rates were 36.16 in 1937 and 36.63 in 1936 in refineries, and 42.59 and 52.16, respectively, in all manufacturing. Although the quit rate in all manufacturing increased from 13.02 in 1936 to 14.97 in 1937, the quit rate in petroleum refineries declined from 8.37 to 6.89. In both groups the discharge rates were lower in 1937 than in 1936. The lay-off rate in all manufacturing increased from 24.70 in 1936 to 35.76 in 1937. The lay-off rate in petroleum refineries, on the other hand, was only slightly higher than in 1936. The 62 plants included in the

survey employed an average of 53,047 workers in 1936 and an average of 55,985 in 1937.

Table 1 shows the annual total separation rates classified into quit, discharge, and lay-off rates and the accession rates in all manufacturing and in 62 identical petroleum refineries for 1936 and 1937.

TABLE 1.—*Annual Labor Turn-Over Rates (per 100 Employees) in All Manufacturing and in 62 Identical Petroleum Refineries, 1936 and 1937*

| Item | Quit rate | | Discharge rate | | Lay-off rate[1] | | Total separation rate | | Accession rate | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 1937 | 1936 | 1937 | 1936 | 1937 | 1936 | 1937 | 1936 | 1937 | 1936 |
| All manufacturing | 14.97 | 13.02 | 2.38 | 2.63 | 35.76 | 24.70 | 53.11 | 40.35 | 42.59 | 52.16 |
| Petroleum refining | 6.89 | 8.37 | .92 | 1.19 | 26.19 | 24.43 | 34.00 | 33.99 | 36.16 | 36.63 |

[1] Including temporary, indeterminate, and permanent lay-offs.

## *Labor Turn-Over, by Rate Group*

In 1937, 29 refineries with 24,992 employees and in 1936, 32 plants with 15,578 workers on the pay roll had a quit rate of less than 5 per 100 employees. In contrast there were 4 refineries with 4,138 employees in 1937 and the same number of plants with 3,708 workers in 1936 that showed a quit rate of 15 or over per 100 workers on the pay roll.

Forty-two plants employing 35,792 workers in 1937 and 35 establishments with 25,015 employees in 1936 had a discharge rate of less than 1 per 100 on the pay roll. In the group of 9 or over there were 2 plants with 299 workers in 1937 and 4 establishments with 594 in 1936.

In 1937, 24 refineries with 29,538 workers on the pay roll had a lay-off rate of less than 10 per 100. In 1936, 27 plants with 26,026 employees were in the same group. Ten establishments with 5,208 employees in 1937, and 8 firms with 3,392 workers in 1936 reported a lay-off rate of 90 or more per 100 employees.

Nearly 63 percent of the total employees in 1937 and 50 percent in 1936 were reported by firms that had a total separation rate of less than 20 per 100 workers. The group of 120 and over included 5 percent of the total employment in 1937 and only slightly less in 1936.

Refineries with accession rates of less than 10 per 100 wage earners increased from 8 with 3,322 workers in 1936 to 10 with 5,267 in 1937. The number of plants reporting an accession rate of 70 or over increased from 14 in 1936 to 16 in 1937. The number of employees in these groups increased from 4,610 in 1936 to 10,537 in 1937.

In the 62 identical petroleum refineries 20 percent of the total separations were reported as quits in 1937 and 25 percent in 1936; discharges accounted for 3 percent and 4 percent, respectively. Lay-

offs in 1937 were 77 percent of the total separations and 72 percent in 1936.

Table 2 shows the number of firms, number of employees, quits, discharges, lay-offs, total separations, and accessions in 62 identical petroleum refineries, by rate groups, for the years 1936 and 1937.

TABLE 2.—*Comparative Labor Turn-Over Experience (per 100 Employees) in Petroleum Refineries, by Rate Groups, 1936–37*

| Rate group | Number of establishments | | Number of employees | | Percent of total employees | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 1937 | 1936 | 1937 | 1936 | 1937 | 1936 |
| | Quits | | | | | |
| Under 2.5 | 16 | 22 | 4,659 | 5,316 | 8.32 | 10.02 |
| 2.5 and under 5.0 | 13 | 10 | 20,333 | 10,262 | 36.33 | 19.35 |
| 5.0 and under 7.5 | 9 | 10 | 9,127 | 11,528 | 16.30 | 21.73 |
| 7.5 and under 10.0 | 9 | 6 | 11,215 | 3,590 | 20.03 | 6.77 |
| 10.0 and under 15.0 | 11 | 10 | 6,513 | 18,643 | 11.63 | 35.14 |
| 15.0 and under 20.0 | 3 | 2 | 2,905 | 3,238 | 5.19 | 6.10 |
| 20.0 and under 25.0 | 1 | | 1,233 | | 2.20 | |
| 25.0 and over | | 2 | | 470 | | .89 |
| Total | 62 | 62 | 55,985 | 53,047 | 100.00 | 100.00 |
| | Discharges | | | | | |
| Under 0.5 | 35 | 29 | 27,233 | 22,214 | 48.65 | 41.88 |
| 0.5 and under 1.0 | 7 | 6 | 8,559 | 2,801 | 15.29 | 5.28 |
| 1.0 and under 2.0 | 9 | 12 | 13,191 | 18,232 | 23.56 | 34.37 |
| 2.0 and under 3.0 | 4 | 6 | 4,149 | 6,750 | 7.41 | 12.72 |
| 3.0 and under 4.0 | 2 | 2 | 2,110 | 1,267 | 3.77 | 2.39 |
| 4.0 and under 5.0 | 1 | 1 | 45 | 861 | .08 | 1.62 |
| 5.0 and under 7.0 | 2 | 2 | 399 | 328 | .71 | .62 |
| 7.0 and under 9.0 | | | | | | |
| 9.0 and under 11.0 | 1 | 2 | 103 | 345 | .18 | .65 |
| 11.0 and over | 1 | 2 | 196 | 249 | .35 | .47 |
| Total | 62 | 62 | 55,985 | 53,047 | 100.00 | 100.00 |
| | Lay-offs | | | | | |
| Under 5 | 14 | 19 | 9,211 | 17,399 | 16.45 | 32.80 |
| 5 and under 10 | 10 | 8 | 20,327 | 8,627 | 36.31 | 16.26 |
| 10 and under 20 | 9 | 10 | 10,943 | 11,360 | 19.55 | 21.41 |
| 20 and under 30 | 6 | 4 | 1,335 | 4,799 | 2.38 | 9.05 |
| 30 and under 40 | 4 | 4 | 3,035 | 1,972 | 5.42 | 3.72 |
| 40 and under 60 | 3 | 5 | 977 | 3,082 | 1.75 | 5.81 |
| 60 and under 90 | 6 | 4 | 4,949 | 2,416 | 8.84 | 4.55 |
| 90 and under 120 | 4 | 3 | 2,756 | 1,230 | 4.92 | 2.32 |
| 120 and under 150 | 1 | 2 | 1,245 | 339 | 2.22 | .64 |
| 150 and over | 5 | 3 | 1,207 | 1,823 | 2.16 | 3.44 |
| Total | 62 | 62 | 55,985 | 53,047 | 100.00 | 100.00 |
| | Total separations | | | | | |
| Under 10 | 9 | 12 | 7,185 | 5,430 | 12.84 | 10.24 |
| 10 and under 20 | 19 | 17 | 28,042 | 21,397 | 50.09 | 40.33 |
| 20 and under 30 | 6 | 7 | 4,855 | 9,899 | 8.67 | 18.66 |
| 30 and under 40 | 4 | 8 | 1,944 | 6,301 | 3.47 | 11.88 |
| 40 and under 60 | 8 | 3 | 3,802 | 1,329 | 6.79 | 2.51 |
| 60 and under 90 | 6 | 7 | 4,949 | 5,299 | 8.84 | 9.99 |
| 90 and under 120 | 3 | 2 | 2,442 | 924 | 4.36 | 1.74 |
| 120 and under 150 | 2 | 3 | 1,559 | 645 | 2.78 | 1.22 |
| 150 and under 180 | 2 | 1 | 448 | 1,333 | .80 | 2.51 |
| 180 and over | 3 | 2 | 759 | 490 | 1.36 | .92 |
| Total | 62 | 62 | 55,985 | 53,047 | 100.00 | 100.00 |

TABLE 2.—*Comparative Labor Turn-Over Experience (per 100 Employees) in Petroleum Refineries, by Rate Groups, 1936–37*—Continued

| Rate group | Number of establishments | | Number of employees | | Percent of total employees | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 1937 | 1936 | 1937 | 1936 | 1937 | 1936 |
| | Accessions | | | | | |
| Under 5 | 3 | 3 | 1,927 | 2,764 | 3.44 | 5.21 |
| 5 and under 10 | 7 | 5 | 3,340 | 558 | 5.97 | 1.05 |
| 10 and under 20 | 17 | 14 | 26,308 | 20,849 | 46.99 | 39.31 |
| 20 and under 30 | 8 | 11 | 8,642 | 8,919 | 15.44 | 16.81 |
| 30 and under 40 | 4 | 6 | 1,216 | 6,100 | 2.17 | 11.50 |
| 40 and under 50 | 5 | 3 | 2,649 | 1,276 | 4.73 | 2.41 |
| 50 and under 70 | 2 | 6 | 1,360 | 7,971 | 2.43 | 15.03 |
| 70 and under 110 | 7 | 8 | 7,339 | 1,350 | 13.11 | 2.54 |
| 110 and under 150 | 5 | 1 | 2,094 | 861 | 3.74 | 1.62 |
| 150 and over | 4 | 5 | 1,104 | 2,399 | 1.98 | 4.52 |
| Total | 62 | 62 | 55,985 | 53,047 | 100.00 | 100.00 |

## *Turn-Over Rates, by Size of Establishment*

In both years lower turn-over rates were reported for refineries employing 500 or more workers than in establishments with fewer employees. The total separation rate for the larger plants was 30.10 in 1937 and 30.01 per 100 workers in 1936, and the accession rates were 31.54 and 32.37 respectively. In 1937 the larger concerns employed an average of 49,655 workers and in 1936 an average of 47,105. Plants with less than 500 employees reported a total separation rate of 64.61 per 100 in 1937 and 65.55 in 1936. The accession rates were 72.39 in 1937 and 70.38 per 100 workers in 1936. The smaller firms employed an average of 6,330 workers in 1937 and an average of 5,942 in 1936.

TABLE 3.—*Comparative Labor Turn-Over Rates (per 100 Employees) in the Petroleum Refining Industry, by Size of Establishment, 1936 and 1937*

| Class of rates | Rate per 100 employees in establishments employing in— | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 1937 | | 1936 | |
| | Less than 500 employees | 500 or more employees | Less than 500 employees | 500 or more employees |
| Quit | 6.35 | 6.96 | 5.35 | 8.75 |
| Discharge | 1.55 | 0.84 | 2.22 | 1.06 |
| Lay-off | 56.71 | 22.30 | 57.98 | 20.20 |
| Total separation | 64.61 | 30.10 | 65.55 | 30.01 |
| Accession | 72.39 | 31.54 | 70.38 | 32.37 |

## WAGE DETERMINATIONS FOR WORK ON PUBLIC CONTRACTS

THE Secretary of Labor made three wage determinations in April 1938, affecting workers employed in the manufacture of envelopes, leather and sheep-lined jackets, and wool and wool-lined jackets for Government use, under the terms of the Public Contracts Act.[1] In each case the prevailing wages were established following public hearings.

*Envelope industry.*—Evidence presented by the Envelope Manufacturers Association of America showed that in September 1937, of 6,562 employees producing envelopes, 3,073 in 98 manufacturing plants received wages of less than 50 cents an hour; the majority of these workers (2,654) were tenders of automatic machinery and fell in the group from 40 to 45 cents an hour. It was therefore declared that the minimum wage to be paid for labor employed on Government contracts should be 42.5 cents per hour or $17 per week of 40 hours on or after May 12, 1938.

*Leather and sheep-lined jackets.*—The United States Women's Bureau obtained data on conditions in manufacturing wool and wool-lined and leather and sheep-lined jackets in the fall of 1937, for the use of the Secretary in determining wages. That study showed that 11.3 percent of the 2,420 employees of 35 firms engaged in the manufacture of leather and sheep-lined jackets earned between 35 and 40 cents per hour; 10.3 percent between 40 and 45 cents; and 10.5 percent between 45 and 50 cents. Testimony showed that greater skill was required and that occupational rates were more uniform and higher than in other cotton-garment industries but that no differential appeared necessary in the rates of pay, such as was contained in the determination covering the cotton-garment and allied industries. In view of these findings the prevailing minimum wage was determined as 42.5 cents per hour, or $17 for a 40-hour week, and the Secretary established this rate to apply on all Government contracts for leather and sheep-lined jackets awarded on or after May 13, 1938.

*Wool and wool-lined jackets.*—Since the evidence showed that wool and wool-lined jackets are commonly made in cotton-garment facto-

[1] U. S. Department of Labor. Press releases, Nos. 300, 301, and 302, dated April 27, 28, and 29, 1938.

ries, using the same labor interchangeably on both kinds of garments, the Secretary declared that labor on such jackets should be paid at the rates previously established for employees in cotton-garment plants.[2] Under the determination for the cotton-garment industry rendered on July 28, 1937, "mackinaws" were included, but this classification was not used to define any one particular kind of coat. The term is used variously to designate windbreakers, lumber jackets, work and other short coats, or blanket-lined and similar coats. Wool and wool-lined jackets are regarded as belonging to this group of garments and the Secretary of Labor declared that on or after May 13, 1938, the rates of wages fixed for the cotton-garment and allied industry should be extended to cover the manufacture of such jackets. The minimum rate of pay thus applied is 37.5 cents per hour or $15 per 40-hour week. This determination also allows lower rates for learners and a fixed proportion of handicapped and superannuated employees.

## MINIMUM WAGE FOR SUGAR-BEET LABOR, 1938

A DETERMINATION of minimum wage rates for workers employed in the production of the 1938 crop of sugar beets was made by the Agricultural Adjustment Administration on April 6.[3] The payment of not less than the prescribed rates is one of the conditions of eligibility for benefit payments under the Sugar Act of 1937. An earlier determination was confined to wages for harvesting the 1937 sugar-beet crop.[4]

The new minimum-wage rates are higher than the wages paid most frequently during 1935 in most, if not all, of the 7 geographical districts for which separate determinations have now been made. The wage increase, computed on a normal crop yield, will amount to 13 percent in northern Wyoming and Montana, 17 percent in northern Colorado and western Nebraska, and perhaps as much as 25 percent in central Michigan. In southern Michigan the new rates may not provide the beet workers with any increase above the unusually high earnings of 1935. A survey of beet workers in six States, by the Children's Bureau, revealed average (median) earnings from sugar-beet work during 1935 of $340 per family.[5]

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[2] See Monthly Labor Review, September 1937 (pp. 694–696).
[3] Federal Register, April 6, 1938 (pp. 831–32).
[4] See Monthly Labor Review, March 1938 (p. 638).
[5] Idem, February 1938 (p. 335).

# MINIMUM-WAGE LEGISLATION IN KANSAS AND KENTUCKY

SINCE the beginning of 1938 one State (Kentucky) has enacted a new minimum-wage law for women and minors, and another (Kansas) has revived a previous act. As a result of this action there are now such laws in 26 jurisdictions.[6]

In Kansas, the law originally enacted in 1915 (acts of 1915, ch. 275) had been inoperative since 1925 when the Supreme Court of the State held that the law was unconstitutional (*Topeka Laundry Co.* v. *Court of Industrial Relations*, 237 Pac. 1041). The decision of the State court was based on a precedent established by the United States Supreme Court in holding the minimum-wage law of the District of Columbia invalid (*Adkins* v. *Children's Hospital*, 261 U. S. 525). After the United States Supreme Court in 1937 decided that the minimum-wage law of Washington was constitutional (*West Coast Hotel Co.* v. *Parrish*, 300 U. S. 379),[7] the laws of a number of States which had been inoperative since the decision in the Adkins case were revived, and recently the Attorney General of Kansas held that as a result of this decision the original Kansas law is now effective.

The original Kansas law was of the wage-board type, but amendments were adopted in 1921 which repealed the provisions of the act authorizing the appointment of wage boards.

The amended law provides that the Kansas Commission of Labor and Industry may investigate wages, hours, and sanitary and other conditions affecting women and minors in any industry in the State. If the commission finds that wages, hours, and conditions are prejudicial to the health or welfare of any substantial number of employees and are inadequate to supply the necessary cost of living, it may set minimum wages in that industry. The law states that the wages to be paid must be reasonable and not detrimental to the health and welfare of workers.

The Kentucky law, which was approved on March 3, 1938 (H. B. 368), is of the wage-board type, as are most of the laws recently enacted. In this State the commissioner of industrial relations is authorized to investigate wages and if it is found that a substantial number of women and minors are receiving oppressive and unreasonable wages, a wage board shall be appointed to determine and recommend the proper wage. The wages to be recommended must be fairly commensurate with the value of the services rendered and sufficient to meet the minimum cost of living necessary for health.

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[6] Arizona, Arkansas, California, Colorado, Connecticut, District of Columbia, Illinois, Kansas, Kentucky, Massachusetts, Minnesota, Nevada, New Hampshire, New Jersey, New York, North Dakota, Ohio, Oklahoma, Oregon, Pennsylvania, Puerto Rico, Rhode Island, South Dakota, Utah, Washington, and Wisconsin. See analysis of the laws effective prior to 1938 in M. L. R., Aug. 1937, p. 381.

[7] See Monthly Labor Review for May 1937 (p. 1202).

After public hearings, and approval of the wage board report by the commissioner, a directory order is issued. After this has been in effect for 3 months, the order may be made mandatory, and thereafter the employer is subject to a fine or imprisonment for the violation of the terms of the order.

A summary of the Kansas and the Kentucky minimum-wage laws follows:

## *Kansas*

*Citation.*—General Statutes, 1935, sections 44–639 to 44–650; 44–601a; 74–704.

*Classes covered.*—Women; minors (either sex under 18 years of age).

*Exceptions.*—When, in its judgment, different conditions justify such action, the commission may establish different minimum hours and standards in various localities in the State.

*Occupations or industries covered.*—Any industry or occupation.

*Administrative agency.*—Commission of labor and industry.

*Method of selecting occupation or industry to be considered by commission.*—At its discretion, the commission may investigate wages, hours, and sanitary and other conditions affecting women, learners and apprentices, and minors in any industry or occupation in the State.

*Method of arriving at wage awards.*—If, after investigation, the commission is of the opinion that in any occupation the wages, hours, and conditions are prejudicial to the health or welfare of any substantial number of employees and are inadequate to supply the necessary cost of living and to maintain the worker in health, it is required to publish a notice not less than once a week for 4 successive weeks in the official State paper that it will hold a public meeting at which all persons will be given a hearing. After the publication of the notice and the meeting, the commission may make and render such an order as may be proper or necessary and require all employers in the occupation affected to observe and comply with it.

*Means provided for securing enforcement of award.*—Noncompliance with order of commission is a misdemeanor punishable by a fine of not less than $25 or more than $100 for each offense. Employee may recover back wages, costs, and attorney's fees.

*Principles by which amount of award is determined.*—Wages must be reasonable and not detrimental to the health and welfare of workers.

## *Kentucky*

*Citation.*—Acts of 1938, H. B. 368.

*Classes covered.*—Women; minors (either sex under 21 years of age).

*Exceptions.*—Any person (including learners or apprentices) with earning capacity impaired by age or physical deficiency or injury may be granted a special license authorizing a wage lower than the established minimum for a fixed period.

*Occupations or industries covered.*—Any industry, trade or business or branch thereof, or class of work therein in which women or minors are gainfully employed (not including domestic service in the home of the employer or labor on a farm).

*Administrative agency.*—Commissioner of industrial relations.

*Method of selecting occupation or industry to be considered by the commissioner.*—At his discretion or on the petition of 50 or more residents of the State, the commissioner may investigate wages being paid to women or minors in any

occupation to ascertain whether any substantial number of women or minors in such occupation are receiving oppressive and unreasonable wages.

*Method of arriving at wage awards.*—The commissioner requests the Governor to appoint a wage board. A wage board is composed of three representatives each of employers and of employees in the occupation (to be selected as far as practicable from nominations by the respective groups) and of the public. A report must be made to the commissioner within 60 days of the organization of a wage board. The wage board investigates and recommends a minimum wage which the commission may accept or reject.

*Means provided for securing enforcement of award.*—The payment of wages less than those set by a mandatory order is a misdemeanor punishable by a fine or imprisonment or both. Each week in any day of which the order is not complied with constitutes a separate offense as to each employee.

*Principles by which amount of award is determined.*—Wages must be fairly commensurate with the value of the service rendered and sufficient to meet the minimum cost of living necessary for health.

# *Wages and Hours of Labor*

## EARNINGS AND HOURS IN THE SOAP INDUSTRY, JANUARY 1938 [1]

AVERAGE hourly earnings of 68.8 cents per hour in January 1938 were disclosed by a study of the soap industry made by the Bureau of Labor Statistics. The study covered 7,143 wage earners in 72 establishments engaged in the manufacture of soap, scouring powder, and washing compounds. In terms of the number of workers, this constituted approximately a 50-percent coverage of the industry.

The survey revealed a considerable difference in wage levels in the establishments of various size. The large companies (employing 1,000 or more workers each) paid substantially higher wages than the smaller companies. Hourly earnings averaged 76.2 cents in the largest companies, as compared with 58.0 cents in the medium-sized companies, and 55.6 cents in the small companies (6 to 60 employees).

Skilled male workers averaged 90.3 cents per hour, semiskilled 71.8 cents, and unskilled 63.8 cents. Analysis by size of company indicated that skilled employees averaged 10.1 cents per hour more in large than in medium-sized companies, whereas the difference for these workers as between medium-sized and small companies was only 1.9 cents. Similarly, disparities in hourly earnings in the companies of different sizes were shown for semiskilled and unskilled workers.

### *Extent of Industry and of Survey*

The soap industry, as defined by the Bureau of the Census, "consists in the manufacture, as a primary product, of soap in bars and cakes and in granulated, powdered, and liquid form, and of cleansers, scouring powders, and washing compounds containing soap made in the same factories." According to the Census of Manufactures there were 238 establishments (in 28 States) engaged primarily in this industry in 1935; these had 13,911 wage earners. Well over three-fourths of the total product, however, came from the few largest companies with plants scattered throughout the United States. There is little tendency toward specialization in the industry and practically all of the establishments covered in the Bureau's study were found to be making various kinds of soap products.

[1] Prepared by J. Perlman, H. E. Riley, and George E. Votava of the Bureau's Division of Wages, Hours, and Working Conditions, in cooperation with the Division of Public Contracts. A more detailed report covering the survey will appear in a forthcoming bulletin of the Bureau.

Modern soap manufacture, especially in the larger plants, is highly mechanized, and the cost of labor represents but a small part of the price of soap. On the basis of the 1935 census figures, the total wages paid to wage earners in the industry amounted to somewhat over 6 percent of the total value of the product.

The 72 establishments fell into three distinct groups: (1) 13 establishments belonging to the large companies, each of which had 1,000 or more workers; (2) 16 medium-sized companies with employees ranging in number from nearly 100 to about 700; and 43 very small establishments, employing from 6 to 60 wage earners each. The combined employment of these 72 plants constituted over 90 percent of the total for the industry. The survey included nearly all of the establishments belonging to the large companies. However, in order to prevent these companies from overweighting the average, only 50 percent of the workers were taken in each of their plants with 400 employees or more. This was done by selecting a carefully balanced cross section of the labor force in every one of the latter establishments, thus making sure that the employees scheduled were representative of all departments and occupations. On the other hand, in the case of the remaining companies, not all plants were covered, but those included constitute a representative list with respect to the various size-groups of establishments.

The survey covered 14 States, the plants being so selected as to give each State a representation in the sample in terms of employment more or less according to its position in the total industry. The survey included 9 plants in California, 9 in Illinois, 5 in Massachusetts, 8 in New Jersey, 15 in New York, 9 in Ohio, 6 in Pennsylvania, and 11 located in the States of Connecticut, Kansas, Indiana, Iowa, Missouri, Rhode Island, and Wisconsin. According to the Census of Manufactures, the average number of workers employed in all of these States in 1935 constituted 96 percent of the total employment in the industry.

The wages and hours data collected in this survey are based on pay-roll records obtained by personal visits by the Bureau's field representatives to the 72 plants covered. In nearly every establishment the pay-roll period taken was within the month of January 1938, in order to obtain a more recent picture of wages and hours.[2]

Descriptions of occupations were also obtained from plant officials, together with an estimate as to the degree of skill required in each occupation. This information was used as a basis for determining the occupational classes in this report, including the classification of occupations as to skilled, semiskilled, and unskilled.[3]

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[2] In case the pay-roll period exceeded 1 week, there were also obtained the total hours actually worked for 1 continuous week in the pay-roll period. This made it possible to compile data on weekly hours and weekly earnings for all establishments.

[3] The color of each employee scheduled was also obtained, but the number of colored workers was too small to justify separate treatment.

## *Average Hourly Earnings*

### HOURLY EARNINGS BY SEX AND SKILL

The 7,143 employees of the soap industry included in this survey earned an average of 68.8 cents an hour in January 1938. Such a figure, however, conveys little information about the multiplicity of individual earnings, which may be seen from the distribution in table 1.

The distribution of all employees in the industry reveals a fairly wide spread of earnings. The effective range is from 32.5 cents to $1.125, with 97.0 percent of the workers found within these limits. The distribution does not show a very marked concentration within any relatively narrow range of the data. Moreover, a larger proportion of the employees (56.5 percent) are found below the principal modal concentration, as compared with the proportion (31.2 percent) above it.

Taking the distribution as a whole, more than one-third of the employees earned less than 62.5 cents an hour, but only 3.5 percent received as little as under 37.5 cents. About one-third of the total were found in the range of 62.5 and less than 77.5 cents. Somewhat less than a third earned 77.5 cents or more, although only 5.0 percent were paid as much as $1.025 or over.

TABLE 1.—*Percentage Distribution of Employees in Soap Industry, by Average Hourly Earnings and by Skill, January 1938*

| Average hourly earnings (in cents) | Both sexes | | | | Males | | | | Females | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Total | Skilled | Semi-skilled | Un-skilled | Total | Skilled | Semi-skilled | Un-skilled | Total | Semi-skilled | Un-skilled |
| Under 27.5 | 0.2 | ------- | 0.1 | 0.3 | 0.2 | ------- | 0.1 | 0.3 | 0.6 | ------- | 0.8 |
| 27.5, under 32.5 | .9 | 0.1 | .5 | 1.5 | | | | | 5.8 | 5.4 | 5.9 |
| 32.5, under 37.5 | 2.4 | .1 | 1.6 | 4.1 | 1.0 | ------- | 1.3 | 1.0 | 11.0 | 4.1 | 13.6 |
| 37.5, under 42.5 | 5.8 | .4 | 3.7 | 9.6 | 3.9 | 0.3 | 2.9 | 6.5 | 16.7 | 10.2 | 19.2 |
| 42.5, under 47.5 | 5.3 | .9 | 4.8 | 7.5 | 4.0 | .7 | 3.7 | 6.0 | 12.9 | 15.3 | 11.9 |
| 47.5, under 52.5 | 8.3 | .6 | 7.2 | 12.1 | 5.8 | .3 | 5.8 | 8.4 | 22.3 | 19.1 | 23.6 |
| 52.5, under 57.5 | 7.3 | 2.0 | 7.8 | 8.7 | 6.2 | 1.7 | 6.2 | 8.3 | 13.5 | 22.5 | 10.1 |
| 57.5, under 62.5 | 5.0 | 2.2 | 5.9 | 5.2 | 4.4 | 2.0 | 5.3 | 4.7 | 8.1 | 12.2 | 6.6 |
| 62.5, under 67.5 | 10.3 | 3.2 | 7.3 | 15.6 | 11.1 | 2.8 | 7.6 | 18.8 | 5.9 | 6.8 | 5.5 |
| 67.5, under 72.5 | 11.0 | 3.4 | 10.8 | 14.1 | 12.5 | 3.5 | 11.6 | 18.1 | 2.1 | 2.4 | 2.0 |
| 72.5, under 77.5 | 12.3 | 7.3 | 14.9 | 11.8 | 14.2 | 7.5 | 16.4 | 15.3 | | | |
| 77.5, under 82.5 | 8.8 | 9.4 | 14.1 | 3.8 | 10.3 | 9.6 | 15.6 | 5.0 | | | |
| 82.5, under 87.5 | 5.6 | 12.6 | 6.6 | 2.1 | 6.5 | 12.7 | 7.3 | 2.8 | | | |
| 87.5, under 92.5 | 5.4 | 15.6 | 5.6 | 1.5 | 6.4 | 15.9 | 6.2 | 2.0 | | | |
| 92.5, under 97.5 | 3.4 | 8.9 | 4.0 | .9 | 4.0 | 9.0 | 4.4 | 1.2 | | | |
| 97.5, under 102.5 | 3.0 | 11.8 | 2.2 | .5 | 3.5 | 12.1 | 2.4 | .7 | 1.1 | 2.0 | .8 |
| 102.5, under 107.5 | 1.7 | 6.5 | 1.2 | .4 | 2.0 | 6.6 | 1.3 | .5 | | | |
| 107.5, under 112.5 | 1.4 | 5.7 | 1.0 | .2 | 1.7 | 5.8 | 1.1 | .3 | | | |
| 112.5, under 117.5 | .8 | 3.6 | .5 | .1 | 1.0 | 3.6 | .5 | .1 | | | |
| 117.5, under 125.0 | .5 | 2.6 | .1 | [1] | .6 | 2.7 | .2 | [1] | | | |
| 125.0 and over | .6 | 3.1 | .1 | ------- | .7 | 3.2 | .1 | ------- | | | |
| Total, percent | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.00 |
| Total number of employees | 7,143 | 1,175 | 2,803 | 3,165 | 6,087 | 1,151 | 2,533 | 2,403 | 1,056 | [2] 294 | 762 |

[1] Less than 1/10 of 1 percent.
[2] Includes 24 forewomen who were classed as skilled.

The labor force of the industry consists largely of males. Of the total number scheduled, 85.2 percent were men and 14.8 percent women. Somewhat more than one-third (35.5 percent of the total) consisted of semiskilled males and about one-third (36.6 percent) were unskilled males. The skilled males constituted approximately one-sixth (16.1 percent) of the total number of employees. The majority of the women (10.7 percent of the total labor force) were in the unskilled group, while semiskilled females constituted only 4.1 percent of the total.[4] It will be noted that, taking both sexes, the proportion of unskilled workers (44.4 percent) exceeded that of the semiskilled workers (39.2 percent).

Skilled male workers averaged 90.3 cents an hour. The distribution upon which this average is based, however, shows a wide variation in earnings, the effective limits being 52.5 cents and over $1.25. The principal group (15.9 percent) was in the class 87.5 and under 92.5 cents, with a minor concentration (12.1 percent) at 97.5 cents and under $1.025. Slightly more than 10 percent averaged under 72.5 cents, while nearly 22 percent received $1.025 or more, leaving over two-thirds of the skilled males in the 30-cent range from 72.5 cents to $1.025 an hour.

The earnings of semiskilled male workers averaged 71.8 cents an hour. The range here was even wider than in the case of the skilled group, the effective limits for the semiskilled males being 32.5 and $1.125. On the other hand, the semiskilled distribution showed an even greater concentration, with the principal modal class being 72.5 and under 77.5 cents, although there was a second concentration in the class of 52.5 and less than 57.5 cents. Of the total number of semiskilled males, about one-third (32.9 percent) earned under 67.5 cents, 43.6 percent 67.5 and less than 82.5 cents, and almost one-fourth (23.5 percent) were paid 82.5 cents or over. However, only 8 percent earned less than 47.5 cents, and 5.6 percent were paid as much as 97.5 cents and over.

Unskilled males earned on the average 63.8 cents an hour. The effective range of the distribution was from 32.5 to 97.5 cents. As in the case of semiskilled males, there is an important concentration within a narrow range in the distribution, over half (52.2 percent) of the employees earning from 62.5 to 77.5 cents. Over one-third (35.2 percent) were paid less than 62.5, while about one-twelfth received 82.5 cents or more. In contrast to the skilled and semiskilled distributions, the principal group (18.8 percent) was at 62.5 and under 67.5 cents, with minor concentrations at 47.5 to 52.5 and 37.5 to 42.5 cents.

In the soap industry, as in many others, the difference (18.5 cents) in average hourly earnings between the skilled and semiskilled males

[4] Includes 24 forewomen who were classed as skilled.

was greater than that (8.0 cents) between the semiskilled and unskilled males. Comparing the 3 distributions, it will be seen that over one-third (35.2 percent) of the unskilled workers earned less than 62.5 cents, the lower limit of the class containing the average of the unskilled, as against 25.3 percent of the semiskilled and only 5.0 percent of the skilled workers. On the other hand, over two-fifths (43.2 percent) of the skilled, as compared with 3.2 percent of the semiskilled and less than 1 percent of the unskilled males, earned $1.025 or more, or the upper limit of the class containing the average for the skilled.

The semiskilled females earned on the average 50.4 cents an hour. The distribution covered a relatively narrow range, with effective limits at 27.5 and 67.5 cents. The modal concentration (22.5 percent) occurred in the class of 52.5 to 57.5 cents, but there was also a secondary group in the class of 27.5 to 32.5 cents. Nearly four-fifths (79.3 percent) of the semiskilled females were paid between 37.5 and 62.5 cents, with about one-tenth (9.5 percent) receiving under 37.5 cents and the remaining tenth 62.5 cents or more.

The earnings of unskilled females averaged 46.7 cents an hour. The distribution has the same range as that for semiskilled women, namely from 32.5 to 67.5 cents. In this case, however, bimodality is more clearly shown by the principal mode (23.6 percent) at 47.5 to 52.5 cents and a secondary concentration (19.2 percent) at 37.5 to 42.5 cents. As in the semiskilled group, the earnings of a large proportion (78.4 percent) of the unskilled females were found within a 25-cent range, in this instance in the classes from 32.5 to 57.5 cents. Only 6.7 percent of the unskilled females received less than 32.5 cents, while 14.9 percent were paid 57.5 cents or more.

It will be observed that the difference in earnings between semiskilled and unskilled females amounted to only 3.7 cents. The difference between the distributions for these groups appear, however, to be somewhat greater than the averages would indicate. For example, nearly one-fourth (23.4 percent) of the semiskilled females, as compared with but 14.9 percent of the unskilled, averaged 57.5 cents or better. On the other hand, less than one-tenth (9.5 percent) of the semiskilled women earned under 37.5 cents, while over one-fifth (20.3 percent) of the unskilled women received less than this amount.

### DIFFERENCES AMONG INDIVIDUAL PLANTS

An outstanding characteristic of the industry is that it includes both very large companies and numerous small ones, hence significant differences appear when the averages of all workers in the individual plants are analyzed by size of company (table 2).

Plant averages of hourly earnings in the soap industry varied from less than 35 to over 85 cents. Nearly one-fourth of the establishments (17 out of 72) averaged less than 50 cents, while 7 averaged

80 cents or over. There were 27 plants with averages ranging from 50 to 65 cents, and 21 averaged from 65 to 80 cents.

The distribution of plant averages brings out clearly that establishments of the large companies paid substantially higher wages than the majority of the remaining plants. In fact, only one of the establishments in the larger companies averaged less than 60 cents an hour, the balance averaging 65 cents or more. Of the 59 remaining companies, on the other hand, 43 averaged under 65 cents. Only 3 of the plants belonging to the smaller companies, as compared with 7 of the 13 plants in the larger companies, paid 75 cents or more.

TABLE 2.—*Distribution of Plants in Soap Industry, by Average Hourly Earnings of all Employees and Size of Company, January 1938*

| Average hourly earnings | All plants | Plants of large companies | Plants of other companies | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | Total | Medium companies | Small companies |
| Under 35.0 cents | 1 | | 1 | | 1 |
| 35.0 and under 40.0 cents | 3 | | 3 | 1 | 2 |
| 40.0 and under 45.0 cents | 6 | | 6 | 1 | 5 |
| 45.0 and under 50.0 cents | 7 | | 7 | 1 | 6 |
| 50.0 and under 55.0 cents | 8 | | 8 | 2 | 6 |
| 55.0 and under 60.0 cents | 12 | 1 | 11 | 4 | 7 |
| 60.0 and under 65.0 cents | 7 | | 7 | 2 | 5 |
| 65.0 and under 70.0 cents | 9 | 3 | 6 | 3 | 3 |
| 70.0 and under 75.0 cents | 9 | 2 | 7 | 2 | 5 |
| 75.0 and under 80.0 cents | 3 | 2 | 1 | | 1 |
| 80.0 and under 85.0 cents | 4 | 2 | 2 | | 2 |
| 85.0 cents and over | 3 | 3 | | | |
| Total | 72 | 13 | 59 | 16 | 43 |

The distribution of plants according to average hourly earnings showed that, whereas there was relatively little difference in the level of earnings between the medium- and small-sized companies, a considerable difference existed in the wage level between the plants of the large companies and the rest of the industry. This comparison is borne out by the averages covering all plants in each size of company, the figures being 76.2 cents an hour in the plants belonging to the large companies against 58.0 cents in the medium-sized and 55.6 in the small companies.

Even greater differences were shown by an analysis of the labor force as to skill and sex among the different size-groups of companies. Thus, skilled employees constituted 19.6 percent of the total labor force in large companies, 15.0 percent in the small, and only 9.6 percent in the medium-sized companies. The order was reversed in the case of unskilled workers, the percentages being 51.1 in small, 48.9 in medium-sized, and 41.2 in large companies. The proportion of semiskilled employees was 39.2 percent for the large, 41.5 percent for the medium-sized, and 33.9 percent for the small companies. The number of women in the total labor force was only 10.2 percent

in the large, 24.0 percent in the medium-sized, and 14.2 percent in small companies. These variations in the composition of the labor force accounted to some extent for the differences in the all-around averages between the various size-groups of companies.

On the other hand, comparison for each sex-skill group indicated that the difference in average hourly earnings between the large and medium companies was considerably higher than that between the medium-sized and small companies, although the amount varied from one group to another (table 3). Skilled male employees in large companies averaged 10.1 cents an hour more than in medium-sized companies, while the difference between medium and small companies was but 1.9 cents. The respective differences for semiskilled males were 17.0 and 3.9 cents, while for unskilled males the respective differences were 12.3 and 7.5 cents. Unskilled females averaged 13.1 cents an hour more in large than in medium-sized companies, while the difference between the medium and small companies amounted to 5.6 cents. For semiskilled females, the number employed by the small companies was not sufficiently large to present an average, but the differential in favor of the large as compared with the medium-sized companies amounted to 12.4 cents.

TABLE 3.—*Average Hourly Earnings in Soap Industry, by Size of Company, Sex, and Skill, January 1938*

| Size of company and sex | All workers | Skilled | Semi-skilled [1] | Unskilled |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| All companies | $0.688 | $0.903 | $0.696 | $0.598 |
| Males | .722 | .903 | .718 | .638 |
| Females | .478 | ---------- | .504 | .467 |
| Large companies | .762 | .932 | .771 | .669 |
| Males | .784 | .932 | .786 | .693 |
| Females | .557 | ---------- | .577 | .548 |
| Other companies | .575 | .825 | .586 | .507 |
| Males | .616 | .825 | .609 | .551 |
| Females | .422 | ---------- | .450 | .411 |
| Medium-sized companies | .580 | .831 | .592 | .516 |
| Males | .626 | .831 | .616 | .570 |
| Females | .427 | ---------- | .453 | .417 |
| Small companies | .556 | .812 | .559 | .474 |
| Males | .580 | .812 | .577 | .495 |
| Females | .385 | ---------- | [2] | .361 |

[1] Includes 24 forewomen who were classed as skilled.
[2] Not enough employees to justify computation of an average.

It is also interesting to compare the distributions of employees according to average hourly earnings by company size-groups. However, in view of the limited number of employees in the small companies and the fact that relatively little difference exists in the level of earnings between the medium-sized and small companies, the comparisons here will be limited to the plants belonging to large companies and the remaining establishments of the industry.

The distribution for large companies, according to table 4, shows that 17.3 percent of the workers earned under 62.5 cents an hour. In

the remainder of the industry, however, nearly two-thirds (63.4 percent) received less than that figure. On the other hand, 16.1 percent of all employees in large companies as against only 4.1 percent in the remaining companies averaged 92.5 cents or more.

TABLE 4.—*Distribution of Employees in Soap Industry, by Average Hourly Earnings and Size of Company, January 1938*

| Average hourly earnings | Large companies | | Other companies | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Number of employees | Percent of total | Number of employees | Percent of total |
| Under 27.5 cents | | | 13 | 0.5 |
| 27.5 and under 32.5 cents | | | 64 | 2.3 |
| 32.5 and under 37.5 cents | | | 175 | 6.3 |
| 37.5 and under 42.5 cents | 23 | 0.5 | 388 | 14.1 |
| 42.5 and under 47.5 cents | 79 | 1.8 | 303 | 10.9 |
| 47.5 and under 52.5 cents | 252 | 5.8 | 338 | 12.2 |
| 52.5 and under 57.5 cents | 205 | 4.7 | 314 | 11.3 |
| 57.5 and under 62.5 cents | 196 | 4.5 | 160 | 5.8 |
| 62.5 and under 67.5 cents | 524 | 12.0 | 212 | 7.7 |
| 67.5 and under 72.5 cents | 550 | 12.6 | 239 | 8.6 |
| 72.5 and under 77.5 cents | 651 | 14.8 | 224 | 8.1 |
| 77.5 and under 82.5 cents | 501 | 11.5 | 126 | 4.6 |
| 82.5 and under 87.5 cents | 351 | 8.0 | 48 | 1.7 |
| 87.5 and under 92.5 cents | 338 | 7.7 | 49 | 1.8 |
| 92.5 and under 97.5 cents | 203 | 4.6 | 42 | 1.5 |
| 97.5 and under 102.5 cents | 196 | 4.5 | 20 | .7 |
| 102.5 and under 107.5 cents | 112 | 2.6 | 11 | .4 |
| 107.5 and under 112.5 cents | 91 | 2.1 | 11 | .4 |
| 112.5 and under 117.5 cents | 47 | 1.1 | 11 | .4 |
| 117.5 and under 125.0 cents | 32 | .7 | 4 | .1 |
| 125.0 cents and over | 24 | .5 | 16 | .6 |
| Total | 4,375 | 100.0 | 2,768 | 100.0 |

## *Actual Weekly Hours*

The average weekly hours actually worked by all employees in the soap industry amounted to 39.4 in January 1938. According to the distribution for the entire industry, as shown in table 5, nearly three-fifths (58.4 percent) of the employees worked exactly 40 hours. About one-fifth (19.6 percent) worked between 32 and 40 hours. Only 5.0 percent worked less than 32 hours, most of these employees having put in short time as a result of labor turn-over and absenteeism. Exactly 17 percent worked 40 hours or over, but only 3.2 percent worked as long as 48 hours or more.

TABLE 5.—*Distribution of Employees in Soap Industry, by Weekly Hours and Sex, January 1938*

| Weekly hours | Total | | Males | | Females | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Employees | Percent of total | Employees | Percent of total | Employees | Percent of total |
| Under 24 hours | 108 | 1.5 | 75 | 1.2 | 33 | 3.1 |
| 24 and under 32 hours | 251 | 3.5 | 172 | 2.8 | 79 | 7.5 |
| 32 and under 40 hours | 1,398 | 19.6 | 1,086 | 17.8 | 312 | 29.5 |
| Exactly 40 hours | 4,171 | 58.4 | 3,618 | 59.5 | 553 | 52.4 |
| 40.01 and under 44 hours | 380 | 5.3 | 363 | 6.0 | 17 | 1.6 |
| 44 and under 48 hours | 313 | 4.4 | 287 | 4.7 | 26 | 2.5 |
| Exactly 48 hours | 290 | 4.1 | 255 | 4.2 | 35 | 3.3 |
| 48.01 and under 56 hours | 160 | 2.2 | 159 | 2.6 | 1 | .1 |
| 56 hours and over | 72 | 1.0 | 72 | 1.2 | | |
| Total | 7,143 | 100.0 | 6,087 | 100.0 | 1,056 | 100.0 |

The male employees averaged over 2 hours more than the females per week, the actual figures being 39.7 for the former and 37.6 for the latter. This is brought out more clearly by examining the respective distribution of weekly hours. Taking the short-time employees, only 4.0 percent of the males as against 10.6 percent of the females worked under 32 hours. This fact is probably explained by a greater amount of absenteeism (and to some extent a greater degree of labor turn-over) found among females as compared with males. A smaller proportion of males (17.8 percent) as compared with females (29.5 percent) were also found working between 32 and 40 hours. On the other hand, whereas almost three-fifths (59.5 percent) of the males worked exactly 40 hours, the number of females in that class amounted to somewhat more than one-half (52.4 percent). Very few females (7.5 percent) worked over 40 hours, and hardly any worked over 48 hours. For males, the proportion working over 40 hours amounted to 18.7 percent, and as many as 8.0 percent worked 48 hours and over.

The relatively greater number of male employees found working longer hours is due to the fact that many of them are in occupations such as watchmen, truck drivers, and power-house employees, the nature of which is such as to require work beyond the scheduled hours for the plant.

Classified by size of company, the weekly hours averaged 38.8 for the large, 39.9 for the medium-sized, and 41.7 for the small organizations.

## *Average Weekly Earnings*

### WEEKLY EARNINGS, BY SEX AND SKILL

The average earnings of all employees in the soap industry amounted to $27.08 per week in January 1938. As table 6 indicates, more than three-fifths of the workers (62.7 percent) earned between $20 and $35 a week. Moreover, 86.7 percent were paid between $15 and $40. Only 6.4 percent received under $15, while 6.9 percent earned as much as $40 and over.

As regards male employees, the average weekly earnings were $36.64 for skilled, $28.51 for semiskilled, and $25.00 for unskilled workers.

Comparing the respective distributions covering the male employees, as shown in table 6, it will be seen that, while less than 1 percent of the skilled workers earned less than $20 per week, the number found under that limit amounted to 10.3 percent for semiskilled and 20.5 percent for unskilled employees. Taking $30 as the upper limit, the percentage is 14.1 for skilled, as compared with as many as 54.7 percent for semiskilled and 81.0 percent for unskilled workers. On the other hand, 29.5 percent of the skilled employees earned $40 and

over, as against only 4.9 percent of semiskilled and 1.3 of unskilled workers.

The weekly earnings of the female employees were $19.33 for semiskilled and $17.42 for unskilled. The distribution in table 6 shows that 14.6 percent of the semiskilled females earned less than $15 per week. This may be compared with 32.0 percent of the unskilled women. Moreover, the number of females receiving over $22.50 amounted to 20.2 percent for semiskilled and 13.4 percent for unskilled employees. Very few females, either semiskilled or unskilled, earned over $30 per week.

Weekly earnings of skilled male employees in all companies averaged $36.64, as compared with $28.51 for semiskilled and $25.00 for unskilled males. The weekly earnings were $19.33 for semiskilled and $17.42 for unskilled women.

TABLE 6.—*Percentage Distribution of Employees in Soap Industry, by Weekly Earnings and Skill, January 1938*

| Weekly earnings [2] | Both sexes | | | | Males | | | | Females | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Total | Skilled | Semi-skilled | Un-skilled | Total | Skilled | Semi-skilled | Un-skilled | Total | Semi-skilled | Un-skilled |
| Under $5 | 0.3 | 0.1 | 0.3 | 0.4 | 0.2 | 0.1 | 0.2 | 0.1 | 1.1 | 0.7 | 1.3 |
| $5 and under $10 | 1.3 | ------- | 1.2 | 2.0 | .9 | ------- | 1.1 | 1.2 | 3.6 | 1.3 | 4.4 |
| $10 and under $15 | 4.8 | .3 | 2.6 | 8.4 | 1.7 | .3 | 1.5 | 2.7 | 22.5 | 12.6 | 26.3 |
| $15 and under $20 | 13.7 | .5 | 11.0 | 21.0 | 9.7 | .5 | 7.5 | 16.5 | 36.8 | 40.8 | 35.2 |
| $20 and under $25 | 18.7 | 3.5 | 18.9 | 24.1 | 16.9 | 3.5 | 17.1 | 23.1 | 29.3 | 34.4 | 27.4 |
| $25 and under $30 | 24.8 | 9.7 | 25.4 | 29.5 | 28.0 | 9.7 | 27.3 | 37.4 | 5.9 | 8.9 | 4.9 |
| $30 and under $35 | 19.2 | 26.0 | 26.2 | 10.3 | 22.3 | 26.0 | 29.2 | 13.4 | .8 | 1.4 | .5 |
| $35 and under $40 | 10.3 | 30.4 | 10.0 | 3.3 | 12.1 | 30.4 | 11.2 | 4.3 | ------ | ------- | ------ |
| $40 and under $45 | 4.6 | 18.6 | 3.2 | .8 | 5.4 | 18.6 | 3.6 | 1.1 | ------ | ------- | ------ |
| $45 and under $50 | 1.2 | 5.0 | 1.0 | .2 | 1.5 | 5.0 | 1.1 | .2 | ------ | ------- | ------ |
| $50 and under $55 | .6 | 3.1 | .2 | (1) | .7 | 3.1 | .2 | (1) | ------ | ------- | ------ |
| $55 and under $60 | .3 | 1.8 | (1) | ------- | .4 | 1.8 | (1) | ------- | ------ | ------- | ------ |
| $60 and over | .2 | 1.0 | ------- | ------- | .2 | 1.0 | ------- | ------- | ------ | ------- | ------ |
| Total | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 |
| Number of employees | 7,143 | 1,151 | 2,827 | 3,165 | 6,087 | 1,151 | 2,533 | 2,403 | 1,056 | 294 | 762 |

[1] Less than 1/10 of 1 percent.
[2] It is evident that the very low weekly earnings were received by employees who worked part time during the week surveyed.

## WEEKLY EARNINGS, BY SIZE OF COMPANY

Employees of plants belonging to large companies averaged $29.56 per week, or $6.40 more than the average for the remaining establishments ($23.16). The average weekly earnings in medium-sized and small companies were almost identical. This is in contrast with the differential of 4.3 percent in hourly earnings in favor of the medium-sized as against the small companies. The disappearance of this difference in weekly earnings is due to the fact that the small companies averaged longer hours than the medium-sized companies. For the same reason, the relative differential between the large companies and the remaining establishments was higher for hourly earnings (32.5 percent) than for weekly earnings (27.6 percent).

The distributions in table 7 show that only 8.5 percent of the workers in plants of large companies were paid under $20 per week, while nearly two-fifths (38.8 percent) of those employed by the remaining companies averaged less than that amount. On the other hand, 22.6 percent of the employees in large companies, as compared with only 8.8 percent of those in the remaining plants in the industry, earned $35 per week or more.

TABLE 7.—*Distribution of Employees in Soap Industry, by Weekly Earnings and Size of Company, January 1938*

| Weekly earnings [1] | Large companies | | Other companies | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Employees | Percent of total | Employees | Percent of total |
| Under $5 | 3 | 0.1 | 19 | 0.7 |
| $5 and under $10 | 11 | .3 | 84 | 3.0 |
| $10 and under $15 | 41 | .9 | 303 | 10.9 |
| $15 and under $20 | 313 | 7.2 | 668 | 24.2 |
| $20 and under $25 | 726 | 16.6 | 610 | 22.1 |
| $25 and under $30 | 1,228 | 28.0 | 539 | 19.5 |
| $30 and under $35 | 1,068 | 24.3 | 299 | 10.8 |
| $35 and under $40 | 604 | 13.8 | 133 | 4.8 |
| $40 and under $45 | 266 | 6.1 | 64 | 2.3 |
| $45 and under $50 | 64 | 1.5 | 25 | .9 |
| $50 and under $55 | 28 | .6 | 14 | .5 |
| $55 and under $60 | 16 | .4 | 6 | .2 |
| $60 and over | 7 | .2 | 4 | .1 |
| Total | 4,375 | 100.0 | 2,768 | 100.0 |

[1] See footnote 2 to table 6.

## SALARIES IN PUBLIC SCHOOLS, 1936

IN 1929–30 the average salary of teachers, supervisors, and principals in the public-school system of continental United States was $1,420 per annum. From 1930 to 1932 a decline of $3 occurred, but from 1932 to 1934 the decrease was $190. The average salary for 1934 was $1,227, which was the same as recorded for 1924. In 1936, however, the average rose to $1,283, or $56 above that of 1934, offsetting in these 2 years 29 percent of the total decline during the depression.

Salaries vary substantially from State to State, the average being as low as $504 for Arkansas, $571 for Mississippi, and $587 for Georgia and as high as $1,834 for Massachusetts, $1,864 for New Jersey, and $2,414 for New York.

In only five States were the average salaries higher in 1936 than in 1930, these increases being in Florida from $876 to $905; in Nevada from $1,483 to $1,521; in Rhode Island from $1,437 to $1,664; in Texas from $924 to $945; and in West Virginia from $1,023 to $1,901.

The data here presented are taken from an article in the March 1938 issue of School Life (Washington, D. C.), by David T. Blose.

In the 14 States listed in table 1, the average salary paid was more than $200 lower in 1936 than in 1930.

TABLE 1.—*Reductions in Average Salaries of Teachers, Supervisors, and Principals in 14 States, 1936 as Compared With 1930*

| State | Reductions in average salaries, 1936 as compared with 1930 | | State | Reductions in average salaries, 1936 as compared with 1930 | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Amount | Percent | | Amount | Percent |
| Colorado | $205 | 14.1 | Idaho | $257 | 21.4 |
| Wyoming | 216 | 17.4 | Illinois | 261 | 16.0 |
| Iowa | 219 | 20.0 | Oklahoma | 289 | 27.0 |
| Arizona | 238 | 14.5 | Kansas | 304 | 26.2 |
| South Dakota | 245 | 25.6 | Nebraska | 305 | 28.3 |
| New Jersey | 249 | 11.8 | California | 347 | 16.3 |
| North Dakota | 252 | 28.0 | Oregon | 458 | 28.4 |

In 29 additional States the average salaries in 1936 were below those of 1930.

Table 2 shows that in two States—Delaware and Missouri—the average salaries in the field covered are higher for Negro teachers than for white teachers. In these States, the report explains, the Negro population is largely concentrated in the cities where the salaries of teachers are considerably higher than in the rural districts.

TABLE 2.—*Average Salaries of Supervisors, Principals, and Teachers in 16 States, 1936*

| State | White | Negro | State | White | Negro |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Alabama | $709 | $328 | Maryland | $1,515 | $1,187 |
| Arkansas | 550 | 316 | Mississippi | 783 | 247 |
| Delaware | 1,538 | 1,664 | Missouri | 1,031 | 1,332 |
| District of Columbia | 2,376 | 2,376 | North Carolina | 811 | 543 |
| Florida | 1,030 | 493 | Oklahoma | 790 | 705 |
| Georgia | 709 | 282 | South Carolina | 825 | 302 |
| Kentucky | 802 | 607 | Texas | 991 | 604 |
| Louisiana | 931 | 403 | Virginia | 901 | 520 |

Average salaries in urban schools differed greatly from those in rural schools, the average in 1936 for the former being $1,818 and for the latter $827, as shown in table 3.

TABLE 3.—*Average Salaries of Supervisors, Principals and Teachers in Urban and Rural Areas, 1936*

| State | Urban | Rural | State | Urban | Rural |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| United States | $1,818 | $827 | Montana | $1,523 | $935 |
| | | | Nebraska | 1,296 | 615 |
| Alabama | 953 | 526 | Nevada | 1,794 | 1,407 |
| Arizona | 1,433 | 1,375 | New Hampshire | 1,437 | 1,001 |
| Arkansas | 768 | 430 | New Jersey | 1,979 | 1,341 |
| California | 2,089 | 1,240 | New Mexico | 1,275 | 903 |
| Colorado | 1,753 | 916 | New York | 2,780 | 1,337 |
| Connecticut | 1,749 | 1,494 | North Carolina | 827 | 708 |
| Delaware | 1,788 | 1,360 | North Dakota | 1,210 | 593 |
| District of Columbia | 2,376 | ------- | Ohio | 1,741 | 1,179 |
| Florida | 905 | 905 | Oklahoma | 1,213 | 603 |
| Georgia | 1,059 | 480 | Oregon | 1,531 | 884 |
| Idaho | 1,223 | 834 | Pennsylvania | 1,813 | 1,118 |
| Illinois | 1,769 | 936 | Rhode Island | 1,683 | 1,418 |
| Indiana | 1,525 | 1,080 | South Carolina | 887 | 561 |
| Iowa | 1,353 | 689 | South Dakota | 1,267 | 634 |
| Kansas | 1,332 | 675 | Tennessee | 1,024 | 611 |
| Kentucky | 1,267 | 629 | Texas | 1,276 | 751 |
| Louisiana | 1,195 | 716 | Utah | 1,450 | 1,038 |
| Maine | 1,181 | 612 | Vermont | 1,309 | 789 |
| Maryland | 1,812 | 1,188 | Virginia | 1,277 | 642 |
| Massachusetts | 1,998 | 968 | Washington | 1,679 | 1,045 |
| Michigan | 1,861 | 908 | West Virginia | 1,091 | 1,091 |
| Minnesota | 1,751 | 691 | Wisconsin | 1,778 | 917 |
| Mississippi | 874 | 520 | Wyoming | 1,518 | 865 |
| Missouri | 1,698 | 664 | | | |

# SALARIES IN PUBLIC LIBRARIES, 1937

ACCORDING to the latest annual survey under the auspices of the American Library Association, salary statistics of public libraries for 1937 show an improvement in remuneration in this field as compared with preceding years.[4] As shown in table 1, which presents data furnished in the report, a comparison of median salaries for 1937 with those for 1936, in libraries serving a population of over 200,000, indicates many more increases than decreases.

TABLE 1.—*Median Salaries in Libraries Serving a Population of More Than 200,000, 1936 and 1937*

| Position | 1936 | | 1937 | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Minimum [1] | Maximum [1] | Minimum [1] | Maximum [1] |
| Department heads | $1,836 | $2,712 | $2,010 | $2,746 |
| Division heads | 1,920 | 2,200 | 1,900 | 2,290 |
| Branch librarian | 1,500 | 1,960 | 1,560 | 2,085 |
| First assistants, departments | 1,524 | 1,914 | 1,568 | 1,977 |
| First assistants, divisions | 1,560 | 1,855 | 1,800 | 1,990 |
| First assistants, branches | 1,383 | 1,561 | 1,440 | 1,763 |
| Catalogers | 1,315 | 1,800 | 1,320 | 1,837 |
| Children's librarians | 1,274 | 1,700 | 1,276 | 1,740 |
| Other professional assistants | 1,200 | 1,800 | 1,242 | 1,900 |
| Subprofessional assistants | 869 | 1,200 | 900 | 1,310 |
| Clerical assistants | 770 | 1,600 | 840 | 1,500 |
| Others (including bookbinders) | 600 | 1,200 | 600 | 1,186 |

[1] Fractions omitted.

The salaries in effect for chief librarians in November 1937, in selected cities in the United States and Canada having a population of more than 200,000, ranged from $2,846 in Winnipeg, Manitoba, to $10,000 in Brooklyn, N. Y. The lowest salary reported for a department head was $1,260 in New Orleans, and the highest $4,500 in Milwaukee. Catalogers' salaries ran from a scale of $900 to $960 in New Orleans to a scale of $2,340 to $2,880 in Chicago.

Salaries for five classes of library employees, as of November 1937, grouped according to population served, are presented in table 2.

TABLE 2.—*Summary of Public Library Salary Statistics as of November 1937*

| Libraries serving— | Salaries of— | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Chief librarians | Assistant chief librarians | Department heads | | Branch and subbranch librarians | | Professional assistants [1] | |
| | | | Minimum | Maximum | Minimum | Maximum | Minimum | Maximum |
| More than 200,000 population: | | | | | | | | |
| High | $10,000 | $5,850 | $3,200 | $4,500 | $2,520 | $3,420 | $2,257 | $3,500 |
| Medium | 5,700 | 3,356 | 2,010 | 2,746 | 1,560 | 2,085 | 1,242 | 1,900 |
| Low | 2,846 | 1,560 | 1,260 | 1,500 | 900 | 1,200 | 763 | 763 |
| 100,000–199,999 population: | | | | | | | | |
| High | 6,500 | 3,000 | 2,220 | 2,600 | 1,740 | 2,220 | 2,000 | 2,100 |
| Medium | 3,600 | 2,271 | 1,503½ | 1,960 | 1,250 | 1,680 | 1,060 | 1,390 |
| Low | 2,464 | 1,870 | 960 | 1,200 | 600 | 790 | 720 | 900 |
| 35,000–99,999 population: | | | | | | | | |
| High | 5,400 | 3,050 | 2,500 | 3,000 | 2,100 | 2,400 | 1,500 | 2,700 |
| Median | 3,175 | 2,100 | 1,525 | 1,900 | 1,450 | 1,560 | 1,200 | 1,469 |
| Low | 1,800 | 1,260 | 1,014 | 1,080 | 720 | 720 | 780 | 960 |
| 10,000–34,999 population: | | | | | | | | |
| High | 4,000 | 1,995 | 1,740 | 1,900 | 2,100 | 1,800 | 1,500 | 1,820 |
| Median | 2,100 | 1,500 | 1,300 | 1,515 | 1,200 | 1,290 | 1,000 | 1,170 |
| Low | 1,200 | 900 | 720 | 1,000 | 600 | 780 | 380 | 780 |

[1] Excludes first assistants in department, divisions, and branches; catalogers; and children's librarians.

[4] American Library Association (Chicago). Bulletin, vol. 32, No. 4, April 1938, pp. 265–266, 271–275.

# FARM WAGE AND LABOR SITUATION, APRIL 1, 1938

FARM wage rates averaged 2½ percent higher on April 1 of this year than on April 1, 1937, the United States Bureau of Agricultural Economics reports in its quarterly statement on farm wages and employment. The average daily rate without board for the country as a whole was $1.63 on April 1, 1938, as compared with $1.58 a year ago, the rates ranging in the different States from 80 cents in South Carolina on both dates to $2.85 in Connecticut on April 1, 1937, and to $2.95 in California on April 1, 1938. The general average monthly rate without board was $34.81 on April 1, 1938, and $34.16 on April 1, 1937. The Bureau of Agricultural Economics points out that in spite of the increase in rates they are not materially higher, when compared with prices of farm products, than at this season during the 10-year period ending with 1930. The lowest rates were reached in 1933, when they dropped to 73 percent of the pre-war (1910–14) level; in April of this year they were 115 percent of the 1910–14 level.

Table 1 shows average farm wage rates, supply of and demand for farm labor, and number of persons employed per farm, on April 1, 1938, as compared with January 1, 1938, January 1 and April 1, 1937, and, for wage rates, with the annual average 1910–14.

TABLE 1.—*Average Farm Wage Rates and Employment at Specified Periods*

| Item | Annual average, 1910-14 | Jan. 1, 1937 | Apr. 1, 1937 | Jan. 1, 1938 | Apr. 1, 1938 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Farm wage index | 100 | 103 | 112 | 111 | 115 |
| Farm wage rates: | | | | | |
| Per month, with board | $20.41 | $20.68 | $23.38 | $22.18 | $23.86 |
| Per month, without board | $29.09 | $31.37 | $34.16 | $33.28 | $34.81 |
| Per day, with board | $1.10 | $1.10 | $1.16 | $1.19 | $1.20 |
| Per day, without board | $1.43 | $1.51 | $1.58 | $1.61 | $1.63 |
| Supply of and demand for farm labor (percent of normal): | | | | | |
| Supply | | 91.0 | 87.2 | 92.0 | 93.1 |
| Demand | | 81.7 | 86.6 | 79.2 | 81.6 |
| Supply as percentage of demand | | 111.4 | 100.7 | 116.2 | 114.1 |
| Number of persons employed per farm: [1] | | | | | |
| Family labor | | 1.94 | 1.97 | 1.89 | 1.95 |
| Hired labor | | .69 | .78 | .67 | .79 |
| Combined | | 2.63 | 2.75 | 2.56 | 2.74 |

[1] On farms of 23,681 crop reporters.

Average farm wage rates per month and per day, with board and without board, on April 1, 1937 and 1938, are shown in table 2 by geographic division.

TABLE 2.—*Average Farm Wage Rates on April 1, 1937 and 1938, by Geographic Division*

| Geographic division | Per month, with board | | Per month, without board | | Per day, with board | | Per day, without board | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 1937 | 1938 | 1937 | 1938 | 1937 | 1938 | 1937 | 1938 |
| United States | $23.38 | $23.86 | $34.16 | $34.81 | $1.16 | $1.20 | $1.58 | $1.63 |
| New England | 31.41 | 31.54 | 53.11 | 54.45 | 1.77 | 1.71 | 2.50 | 2.53 |
| Middle Atlantic | 28.44 | 29.18 | 45.13 | 45.93 | 1.62 | 1.69 | 2.25 | 2.32 |
| East North Central | 29.59 | 29.12 | 41.23 | 40.96 | 1.51 | 1.52 | 1.98 | 2.02 |
| West North Central | 26.32 | 27.55 | 36.28 | 38.29 | 1.25 | 1.36 | 1.75 | 1.88 |
| South Atlantic | 16.43 | 16.49 | 24.30 | 24.07 | .83 | .85 | 1.13 | 1.13 |
| East South Central | 15.65 | 15.94 | 22.65 | 22.92 | .77 | .79 | 1.00 | 1.01 |
| West South Central | 18.20 | 18.88 | 26.38 | 27.57 | .90 | .94 | 1.17 | 1.23 |
| Mountain | 34.34 | 34.41 | 50.36 | 50.22 | 1.58 | 1.61 | 2.15 | 2.17 |
| Pacific | 41.57 | 44.16 | 64.14 | 66.33 | 1.86 | 1.95 | 2.70 | 2.81 |

## WAGES IN CANADA, 1937

WAGE recovery in Canada, which began to be apparent in logging, sawmilling, and common factory labor in 1934, and spread to all groups in 1935, continued through 1936 and 1937.[5] The general average weighted [6] wage index in 1937, based on nine important industrial groups, was 191.7 (1913=100)—or 7.3 percent above that of 1936. The average increase in logging and sawmilling for the same period was approximately 13 percent. Other substantial average gains in 1937 over 1936 were 10 percent in the metal trades, 8.8 percent in factory labor, and nearly 7 percent on steam railways. In building trades the increase was less than 3 percent, and gains were even slighter in the remaining groups, as shown in table 1.

TABLE 1.—*Indexes of Wage Rates of Various Classes of Labor in Canada, 1929, 1933, 1936, and 1937*

[1913=100]

| Industry | 1937 | 1936 | 1933 | 1929 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Building trades [1] | 165.3 | 160.8 | 158.0 | 197.5 |
| Metal trades [2] | 187.4 | 170.1 | 169.2 | 184.6 |
| Printing trades [3] | 187.8 | 185.2 | 184.3 | 202.3 |
| Electric railways [4] | 190.5 | 185.5 | 182.7 | 198.6 |
| Steam railways [5] | 196.1 | 183.9 | 179.7 | 204.3 |
| Coal mining [6] | 166.8 | 165.9 | 161.9 | 168.9 |
| Average, unweighted | 182.3 | 175.2 | 172.6 | 192.7 |
| Average, weighted | 182.9 | 172.9 | 170.2 | 195.0 |
| Common factory labor | 195.5 | 179.7 | 168.1 | 187.8 |
| Miscellaneous factory trades [7] | 203.7 | 188.8 | 175.7 | 202.1 |
| Logging and sawmilling | 188.1 | 165.9 | 121.7 | 185.6 |
| General average, weighted | 191.7 | 178.6 | 168.3 | 196.0 |

[1] 9 trades, 14 cities in 1929; after 1930, 31 to 42 cities.
[2] 4 trades.
[3] 6 trades.
[4] 5 classes.
[5] 23 classes.
[6] 12 classes.
[7] The number of samples (and industries) increased from time to time; machine operators, helpers, etc., also included.

[5] Canada. Department of Labor. Report No. 21: Wages and Hours of Labor in Canada, 1929, 1936, and 1937. Ottawa, 1938.

[6] Weighted according to average number of workers in each group in 1921 and in 1931.

The wage rates and working hours in specified occupations in three cities—Ottawa, Toronto, and Vancouver—in 1936 and 1937, are reported in table 2. Among the few increases recorded for 1937 as compared with the previous year are those for carpenters—from 70 to 80 cents an hour in Ottawa and from 60–80 cents to 90 cents in Vancouver. For sheet-metal workers in all three cities the rates were from 5 to 10 cents higher in 1937. The weekly rates of compositors (machine and hand, newspapers) in Ottawa rose from $39.60 in 1936 to $44 in 1937; of pressmen (newspapers) in the same city from $38.70 to $43; and of bookbinders in Vancouver from $35–$42.30 to $38–$45.

TABLE 2.—*Rates of Wages and Hours of Labor in Various Occupations in Specified Canadian Cities, 1936 and 1937*

BUILDING TRADES

| Occupation | Ottawa | | Toronto | | Vancouver | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Wage rates per hour | Hours per week | Wage rates per hour | Hours per week | Wage rates per hour | Hours per week |
| Bricklayers and masons: | | | | | | |
| 1936 | $0.85–$1.00 | 44 | $0.90 | 40 | $1.10 | 40 |
| 1937 | .85– .95 | 44 | .90 | 40 | 1.10 | 40 |
| Carpenters: | | | | | | |
| 1936 | .70 | 44 | .80 | 40 | $0.60 – .80 | 40–44 |
| 1937 | .80 | 44 | .85 | 40–44 | .90 | 40–44 |
| Electrical workers: | | | | | | |
| 1936 | .70 | 40 | 1.00 | 40 | .75 –1.00 | 40–44 |
| 1937 | .70 | 40 | 1.00 | 40 | .75 –1.00 | 40–44 |
| Painters: | | | | | | |
| 1936 | .65 | 44 | .75 | 40 | .62½– .80 | 40–44 |
| 1937 | .65 | 44 | .75 | 40 | .62½– .80 | 40–44 |
| Plasterers: | | | | | | |
| 1936 | .80 | 44 | .90 | 40 | 1.00 –1.00 | 40 |
| 1937 | .80 | 44 | .90 | 40 | 1.00 –1.00 | 40 |
| Plumbers: | | | | | | |
| 1936 | .83 | 40 | .90 | 40 | 1.00 –1.00 | 40–44 |
| 1937 | .85 | 40 | .90 | 40 | 1.00 –1.00 | 40–44 |
| Sheet-metal workers: | | | | | | |
| 1936 | .75 | 40–44 | .82½ | 40 | .90 | 40–44 |
| 1937 | .82 | 40–44 | .87½ | 40 | 1.00 | 40–44 |
| Stonecutters: | | | | | | |
| 1936 | .80 | 44 | .87½ | 40 | 1.00 | 40 |
| 1937 | .80 | 44 | .87½ | 40 | 1.00 | 40 |
| Laborers: | | | | | | |
| 1936 | .40 | 44–50 | 0.50–.60 | 40–48 | .45–.50 | 40–48 |
| 1937 | .40 | 44–50 | .35–.60 | 40–48 | .45–.50 | 40–48 |

STREET RAILWAYS [1]

| | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Conductors and motormen: [2] | | | | | | |
| 1936: | | | | | | |
| 1-man cars | $0.54 | 49½ | $0.65 | 44 | $0.69 | 48 |
| 2-man cars | | | .60 | 44 | .63 | 48 |
| 1937: | | | | | | |
| 1-man cars | .54 | 49½ | .65 | 44–48 | .69 | 48 |
| 2-man cars | | | .60 | 44–48 | .63 | 48 |
| Linemen: [3] | | | | | | |
| 1936 | $0.51 –.56 | 48 | $0.72 –.78 | 44 | $0.68½–.97 | 40–48 |
| 1937 | .51 –.56 | 48 | .72 –.78 | 44 | .68½–.97 | 40–48 |
| Shop and barn men: [4] | | | | | | |
| 1936 | .35 –.59 | 48 | .54 –.81 | 44–48 | .52 –.75 | 44 |
| 1937 | .35 –.59 | 48 | .54 –.81 | 44–48 | .52 –.75 | 44 |
| Electricians: [5] | | | | | | |
| 1936 | .35 –.61 | 48 | .60 –.79 | 44–48 | .70 –.75 | 44 |
| 1937 | .45 –.61 | 48 | .57½–.79 | 44–48 | .70 –.75 | 44 |
| Trackmen and laborers: | | | | | | |
| 1936 | .38½–.44½ | 48 | .45 –.60 | 48 | .50 –.54 | 44 |
| 1937 | .38½–.44½ | 48 | .45 –.60 | 48 | .50 –.54 | 44 |

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 2.—*Rates of Wages and Hours of Labor in Various Occupations in Specified Canadian Cities, 1936 and 1937*—Continued

PRINTING TRADES

| Occupation | Ottawa | | Toronto | | Vancouver | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Wage rates per week | Hours per week | Wage rates per week | Hours per week | Wage rates per week | Hours per week |
| Compositors, machine and hand, newspapers: | | | | | | |
| 1936 | $39.60 | 46½ | $47.50 | 46½ | $43.20 | 45 |
| 1937 | 44.00 | 46½ | 42.50 | 40 | 43.20 | 45 |
| Compositors, machine and hand, job: | | | | | | |
| 1936 | $32.00–41.00 | 48 | $33.00–40.00 | 44–48 | 40.50 | 44–48 |
| 1937 | 30.00–38.00 | 45–48 | 33.00–40.00 | 40–48 | 40.50 | 44–48 |
| Pressmen, newspapers: | | | | | | |
| 1936 | 38.70 | 48 | 46.50 | 48 | 43.20 | 48 |
| 1937 | 43.00 | 48 | 48.50 | 48 | 43.20 | 48 |
| Pressmen, job: | | | | | | |
| 1936 | 32.00–40.00 | 48 | 33.00–40.00 | 44–48 | 40.50 | 44–48 |
| 1937 | 30.00–38.00 | 45–48 | 33.00–40.00 | 40–48 | 40.50 | 44–48 |
| Bookbinders: | | | | | | |
| 1936 | 30.00–36.00 | 48 | 33.00–40.00 | 44–48 | $35.00–42.30 | 44–48 |
| 1937 | 30.00–36.00 | 45–48 | 33.00–40.00 | 44–48 | 38.00–45.00 | 44–48 |
| Bindery girls: | | | | | | |
| 1936 | 10.50–14.50 | 48 | 12.00–18.00 | 44–48 | 14.00–20.25 | 44–48 |
| 1937 | 10.50–14.50 | 45–48 | 12.00–18.00 | 44–48 | 14.00–20.25 | 44–48 |

[1] Where a range appears, figures represent predominant rates.
[2] Maximum rates based on length of service; in most cities bus drivers, on lines operated in connection with street railways, receive the same maximum rates of wages as 1-man car operators.
[3] Including troublemen and groundmen.
[4] Including shedmen, pitmen, cleaners, blacksmiths, carpenters, painters, etc.
[5] Including armature winders, wiremen, etc.

## *Agricultural Wages*

In the summer season of 1937, for Canada as a whole, the estimated average monthly cash wage of male farm workers was $23, an increase of $2 above the estimate for 1936. The value of board for these workers in 1937 was estimated at $17 per month, as compared with $16 in the preceding year. The annual wages in cash plus value of board of male farm workers in 1937 averaged $400—an increase of $26 over 1936—while the yearly wages and board of female farm workers in 1937 averaged $272—an increase of $11 over the previous year.

The average wages of both male and female farm workers in the various Canadian Provinces [7] are given in table 3. Despite the substantial increases in wages and board in 1936 and 1937, the remuneration of farm workers in these years was far below that of 1929.

[7] Canada: Department of Labor, Report No. 21—Wages and Hours of Labor in Canada, 1929, 1936, and 1937, Ottawa, 1938; Dominion Bureau of Statistics, Monthly Bulletin of Agricultural Statistics, Ottawa, February 1938.

TABLE 3.—*Average Monthly and Yearly Wages of Farm Workers in Canada, 1929, 1933, 1936, and 1937*

[Estimated by crop correspondents of the Dominion Bureau of Statistics]

| Province and year | Per month, summer season | | | | | | Per year | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Males | | | Females | | | Males | | | Females | | |
| | Cash wage | Value of board | Total | Cash wage | Value of board | Total | Cash wage | Value of board | Total | Cash wage | Value of board | Total |
| Canada: | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1929 | $40 | $23 | $63 | $23 | $20 | $43 | $373 | $254 | $627 | $242 | $223 | $465 |
| 1933 | 17 | 15 | 32 | 10 | 12 | 22 | 161 | 161 | 322 | 112 | 134 | 246 |
| 1936 | 21 | 16 | 37 | 11 | 13 | 24 | 206 | 168 | 374 | 126 | 135 | 261 |
| 1937 | 23 | 17 | 40 | 12 | 13 | 25 | 224 | 176 | 400 | 134 | 138 | 272 |
| Prince Edward Island: | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1929 | 34 | 18 | 52 | 19 | 13 | 32 | 327 | 207 | 534 | 196 | 159 | 355 |
| 1933 | 18 | 12 | 30 | 11 | 10 | 21 | 178 | 141 | 319 | 116 | 121 | 237 |
| 1936 | 18 | 13 | 31 | 11 | 11 | 22 | 190 | 161 | 351 | 126 | 136 | 262 |
| 1937 | 21 | 15 | 36 | 11 | 13 | 24 | 206 | 168 | 374 | 125 | 127 | 252 |
| Nova Scotia: | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1929 | 38 | 19 | 57 | 19 | 15 | 34 | 383 | 222 | 605 | 212 | 179 | 391 |
| 1933 | 20 | 14 | 34 | 12 | 11 | 23 | 208 | 157 | 365 | 129 | 119 | 248 |
| 1936 | 22 | 15 | 37 | 12 | 11 | 23 | 245 | 170 | 415 | 136 | 124 | 260 |
| 1937 | 25 | 15 | 40 | 12 | 11 | 23 | 262 | 173 | 435 | 145 | 127 | 272 |
| New Brunswick: | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1929 | 40 | 20 | 60 | 18 | 15 | 33 | 375 | 214 | 589 | 198 | 169 | 367 |
| 1933 | 18 | 13 | 31 | 10 | 10 | 20 | 185 | 151 | 336 | 107 | 120 | 227 |
| 1936 | 25 | 15 | 40 | 11 | 11 | 22 | 257 | 141 | 398 | 117 | 101 | 218 |
| 1937 | 28 | 16 | 44 | 12 | 12 | 24 | 295 | 147 | 442 | 133 | 115 | 248 |
| Quebec: | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1929 | 41 | 20 | 61 | 19 | 14 | 33 | 369 | 208 | 577 | 191 | 151 | 342 |
| 1933 | 17 | 11 | 28 | 9 | 9 | 18 | 152 | 113 | 265 | 94 | 93 | 187 |
| 1936 | 19 | 13 | 32 | 10 | 10 | 20 | 196 | 136 | 332 | 106 | 100 | 206 |
| 1937 | 25 | 15 | 40 | 12 | 11 | 23 | 226 | 150 | 376 | 121 | 111 | 232 |
| Ontario: | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1929 | 35 | 22 | 57 | 22 | 19 | 41 | 341 | 254 | 595 | 242 | 212 | 454 |
| 1933 | 17 | 15 | 32 | 12 | 13 | 25 | 159 | 166 | 325 | 123 | 141 | 264 |
| 1936 | 21 | 16 | 37 | 13 | 14 | 27 | 211 | 177 | 388 | 147 | 148 | 295 |
| 1937 | 25 | 18 | 48 | 14 | 15 | 29 | 235 | 186 | 421 | 158 | 154 | 312 |
| Manitoba: | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1929 | 38 | 23 | 61 | 21 | 19 | 40 | 352 | 256 | 608 | 222 | 216 | 438 |
| 1933 | 15 | 14 | 29 | 8 | 12 | 20 | 143 | 164 | 307 | 89 | 140 | 229 |
| 1936 | 19 | 15 | 34 | 9 | 13 | 22 | 178 | 158 | 336 | 103 | 132 | 235 |
| 1937 | 21 | 16 | 37 | 10 | 13 | 23 | 202 | 165 | 367 | 113 | 136 | 249 |
| Saskatchewan: | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1929 | 44 | 25 | 69 | 24 | 22 | 46 | 398 | 287 | 685 | 256 | 240 | 496 |
| 1933 | 16 | 15 | 31 | 8 | 12 | 20 | 144 | 161 | 305 | 85 | 137 | 222 |
| 1936 | 19 | 16 | 35 | 9 | 13 | 22 | 188 | 158 | 346 | 105 | 133 | 238 |
| 1937 | 19 | 16 | 35 | 10 | 13 | 23 | 184 | 160 | 344 | 106 | 127 | 233 |
| Alberta: | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1929 | 43 | 25 | 68 | 25 | 21 | 46 | 404 | 274 | 678 | 253 | 232 | 485 |
| 1933 | 19 | 15 | 34 | 10 | 13 | 23 | 170 | 174 | 344 | 109 | 152 | 261 |
| 1936 | 22 | 16 | 38 | 11 | 14 | 25 | 206 | 172 | 378 | 125 | 146 | 271 |
| 1937 | 23 | 17 | 40 | 12 | 15 | 27 | 221 | 180 | 401 | 131 | 151 | 282 |
| British Columbia: | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1929 | 49 | 27 | 76 | 28 | 23 | 51 | 482 | 310 | 792 | 291 | 271 | 562 |
| 1933 | 23 | 19 | 42 | 14 | 15 | 29 | 234 | 212 | 446 | 152 | 180 | 332 |
| 1936 | 25 | 21 | 46 | 15 | 17 | 32 | 265 | 229 | 494 | 166 | 192 | 358 |
| 1937 | 28 | 21 | 49 | 17 | 18 | 35 | 279 | 234 | 513 | 170 | 193 | 363 |

## WAGES IN FRANCE, OCTOBER 1937

THE general upward movement of wages which followed the enactment of the social laws in France in June 1936 was continued in 1937. The annual wage study [8] made by the General Statistical Bureau of France in October each year shows the general trend of wages, although the manner in which the information is obtained may result in some

[8] Bulletin de la Statistique Générale de la France, Paris, January–March 1938, pp. 237–252.

inaccuracies in individual instances. The wage data for the study are secured through questionnaires addressed to officers of trade councils and mayors of the principal towns of the Departments, and in Alsace-Lorraine and in the region of Paris, to various trade organizations. The wages reported are an estimate of the rates paid in the majority of instances in the different industries. However, since the data are secured from the same organizations and in the same manner each year, they are regarded as giving an essentially correct picture of the general wage movement.

Prior to 1937 the year 1930 showed the highest average wages. In 1937 the average wages of men in all occupations in cities other than Paris were 37 percent higher than in 1930 and of women 27 percent higher. From the low point of 1935, however, the increase in 1937 amounted to 47 percent for men and 36 percent for women, and from October 1936 to October 1937 there was an increase of 27 percent for men and 18 percent for women. For some of the individual occupations the increases were much greater, amounting to 60 percent for weavers, 55 percent for laborers, over 50 percent in the metal trades and building, and from 40 to 45 percent in a number of other occupations. The conditions governing the application of the 40-hour week and the fact that increases have been secured more easily in well-organized industries explains these differences. The hourly wages of skilled workers in Paris averaged approximately 10 francs in October 1937, or an increase of 50 percent over the 1930 wage and of 42 percent over the average wage in 1936.

Table 1 gives the average hourly wages in October 1935, 1936, and 1937 in Paris and other cities.

TABLE 1.—*Average Hourly Wages in French Cities in October 1935, 1936, and 1937, by Occupation*

[Average exchange rate of franc in October 1935=6.59 cents; October 1936=4.67 cents; October 1937=3.35 cents]

| Occupation | Average hourly wages in— | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Paris and its environs | | | Cities other than Paris | | |
| | 1935 | 1936 | 1937 | 1935 | 1936 | 1937 |
| *Males* | | | | | | |
| Average | *Francs* 6.23 | *Francs* 7.06 | *Francs* 10.06 | *Francs* 3.80 | *Francs* 4.42 | *Francs* 5.60 |
| Brewers | | | | 3.39 | 4.02 | 5.17 |
| Printers, compositors | [1] 6.15 | [2] 7.25 | [2] 10.50 | 4.24 | 4.70 | 6.09 |
| Bookbinders | 5.05 | 6.75 | 10.50 | 4.13 | 4.56 | 5.99 |
| Tanners | | | | 3.49 | 4.06 | 5.12 |
| Saddlers, harness makers | | | | 3.42 | 4.20 | 4.96 |
| Shoemakers | | | | 3.40 | 3.95 | 4.85 |
| Tailors | 5.50 | 6.38 | 8.49 | 3.84 | 4.42 | 5.43 |
| Dyers, cleaners | | | | 3.56 | 4.12 | 5.15 |
| Weavers | | | | 2.90 | 3.62 | 4.63 |
| Rope makers | | | | 3.33 | 3.92 | 4.95 |
| Wheelwrights | | | | 3.72 | 4.33 | 5.40 |
| Wood turners | 6.25 | 7.50 | 9.10 | 3.94 | 4.57 | 5.72 |

[1] Reduced to 6 francs Nov. 1, 1935.
[2] Entrance rate.

TABLE 1.—*Average Hourly Wages in French Cities in October 1935, 1936, and 1937, by Occupation*—Continued

| Occupation | Average hourly wages in— | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Paris and its environs | | | Cities other than Paris | | |
| | 1935 | 1936 | 1937 | 1935 | 1936 | 1937 |
| | *Francs* | *Francs* | *Francs* | *Francs* | *Francs* | *Francs* |
| Coopers | | | | 3.75 | 4.34 | 5.45 |
| Cabinetmakers | 5.87 | 6.50 | 9.40 | 3.97 | 4.55 | 5.79 |
| Upholsterers | | | | 4.00 | 4.60 | 5.61 |
| Pit sawyers | | 6.50 | | 3.78 | 4.41 | 5.29 |
| Carpenters | 5.87 | 6.50 | 9.65 | 4.02 | 4.63 | 5.84 |
| Joiners | 5.87 | 6.75 | 9.65 | 3.88 | 4.53 | 5.76 |
| Coppersmiths | | | | 4.16 | 4.81 | 6.14 |
| Tinsmiths | | | | 3.83 | 4.53 | 5.76 |
| Plumbers | 6.25 | 7.25 | 10.28 | 3.96 | 4.63 | 5.91 |
| Blacksmiths | 6.10 | 7.50 | 10.50 | 3.89 | 4.57 | 5.84 |
| Farriers | | | | 3.74 | 4.32 | 5.45 |
| Stovemakers | | | | 3.83 | 4.53 | 5.78 |
| Locksmiths | 6.00 | 7.25 | 9.65 | 3.77 | 4.48 | 5.78 |
| Fitters | | | | 4.01 | 4.74 | 6.11 |
| Metal turners | 6.05 | 7.20 | 10.35 | 4.03 | 4.84 | 6.14 |
| Electrical fitters | 6.00 | 6.80 | 9.70 | 4.03 | 4.77 | 5.94 |
| Watchmakers | | | | 4.26 | 4.83 | 6.66 |
| Quarrymen | 6.25 | 6.50 | | 3.58 | 4.16 | 5.37 |
| Stonecutters | 9.25 | 9.25 | 12.10 | 4.16 | 4.84 | 6.05 |
| Masons | 6.37 | 7.00 | 10.60 | 3.92 | 4.59 | 5.85 |
| Navvies (*terrassiers*) | 6.25 | 6.50 | 9.55 | 3.31 | 3.96 | 5.11 |
| Roofers | 6.25 | 7.25 | 10.28 | 4.02 | 4.63 | 5.95 |
| House painters | 6.00 | 7.00 | 9.65 | 3.83 | 4.48 | 5.77 |
| Ornamental-stone cutters | 7.12 | 7.67 | 11.05 | 4.95 | 5.50 | 6.85 |
| Brickmakers | | | | 3.48 | 4.10 | 5.06 |
| Potters | | | | 3.56 | 4.52 | 5.25 |
| Glaziers | 6.12 | 7.00 | | 3.82 | 4.47 | 5.75 |
| Motormen, tramways | | | | 3.98 | 4.46 | 5.67 |
| Conductors, tramways | | | | 3.86 | 4.10 | 5.40 |
| Truck drivers | | | | 3.83 | 4.44 | 5.78 |
| Laborers | | | | 2.87 | 3.46 | 4.44 |
| *Females* | | | | | | |
| Average | | | | 2.26 | 2.62 | 3.08 |
| Ironers | | | | 2.33 | 2.63 | 3.10 |
| Dressmakers | | | | 2.33 | 2.67 | 3.09 |
| Seamstresses | | | | 2.15 | 2.53 | 2.97 |
| Waistcoat makers | | | | 2.33 | 2.71 | 3.24 |
| Lace makers | | | | 2.27 | 2.63 | 3.09 |
| Embroiderers | | | | 2.19 | 2.62 | 3.04 |
| Milliners | | | | 2.20 | 2.58 | 3.05 |

Table 2 shows the average weekly wages paid in Paris to female workers in dressmaking and lingerie shops and in fashionable dressmaking shops 1935, 1936, and 1937.

TABLE 2.—*Average Weekly Wages in French Dressmaking Shops, 1935 to 1937*

[Average exchange rate of franc in October 1935=6.59 cents; October 1936=4.67 cents; October 1937=3.35 cents]

| Occupation | 1935 | 1936 | 1937 |
|---|---|---|---|
| | *Francs* | *Francs* | *Francs* |
| Dressmaking and lingerie shops: | | | |
| First hands | 187.20 | 208.00 | 247.10 |
| Second hands | [1] 134.40 | [2] 156.00 | [3] 185.33 |
| Helpers | 89.40 | 105.60 | 125.45 |
| Apprentices | 44.45–53.20 | 48.00–64.80 | 57.02–76.98 |
| Fashionable dressmaking shops: | | | |
| Skilled workers | 192.00 | 210.00 | 231.00 |
| Workers of medium skill | 160.00 | 160.00 | 176.00 |
| Helpers | 100.00 | 100.00 | 110.00 |
| Apprentices | [4] 190.00–260.00 | [4] 217.00–260.00 | [4] 238.70–286.45 |

[1] 114.00 francs for beginners.
[2] 148.80 francs for beginners.
[3] 176.77 francs for beginners.
[4] Per month.

Wages of coal miners were remarkably stable from April 1, 1932, to June 1936, averaging a little more than 35 francs per day for underground workers and nearly 27 francs for surface workers. Increases resulting from the so-called "Matignon" agreement in June 1936 and arbitration proceedings and an agreement between the operators' and miners' organizations resulted in an increase of over 60 percent from June 1936 to October 1, 1937. Although the application of the law establishing the 40-hour week (38 hours and 40 minutes for coal miners) was effective in November 1936, there has been little change in the actual hours worked owing to the partial unemployment in the industry prior to that time. The wage rate in effect for underground workers in the last quarter of 1937 was 58.66 francs per day for underground workers, and 45.34 francs for surface workers.

The total number of days worked and the total earnings in the coal mines in France is shown in the following table for the 8-year period, 1930 to 1936.

TABLE 3.—*Total Number of Days Worked and Total Earnings in French Coal Mines, 1930 to 1937*

[Average exchange rate of franc in 1930 and 1931=3.92 cents; in 1932=3.93 cents; in 1933=5.03 cents; in 1934=6.57 cents; in 1935=6 60 cents; in 1936=6.11 cents; and in 1937=4.05 cents]

| Year | Days worked | Earnings | Year | Days worked | Earnings |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | *Francs* | | | *Francs* |
| 1930 | 79, 400, 000 | 2, 935, 800, 000 | 1934 | 56, 600, 000 | 1, 846, 500, 000 |
| 1931 | 70, 500, 000 | 2, 519, 400, 000 | 1935 | 53. 900, 000 | 1, 749, 700, 000 |
| 1932 | 60, 100, 000 | 1, 975, 300, 000 | 1936 | 53, 600, 000 | 2, 005, 300. 000 |
| 1933 | 57, 000. 000 | 1, 856, 000, 000 | 1937 | 54, 200, 000 | 2, 835, 000. 000 |

A study of the wages paid in the metallurgical, machine, and related industries in the Paris region is made each year in February, but average wages are also secured quarterly for three broad occupational groups. The progressive wage increases between 1935 and 1937, shown in the following table, resulted from the collective agreement of June 1936, the law establishing the 40-hour week which was made

TABLE 4.—*Average Hourly Wages of Workers in French Metallurgical and Machine Industries, 1935 to 1937*

[Average exchange rate of franc in 1935=6.60 cents; in 1936=6.11 cents; and in 1937=4.05 cents]

| Occupation | 1935, fourth quarter | 1936, fourth quarter | 1937 | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | First quarter | Second quarter | Third quarter | Fourth quarter |
| | *Francs* | *Francs* | *Francs* | *Francs* | *Francs* | *Francs* |
| Average | 5. 59 | 7. 25 | 8. 96 | 9. 44 | 9. 60 | 10. 36 |
| Highly skilled workers (professionnel) | 6. 32 | 7. 89 | 9. 83 | 10. 48 | 10. 54 | 11. 31 |
| Skilled workers (manceuvre specialisé) | 5. 05 | 6. 95 | 8. 45 | 8. 95 | 9. 05 | 9. 80 |
| Ordinary workers | 4. 00 | 5. 55 | 6. 85 | 7. 25 | 7. 25 | 8. 00 |

effective for the industry in December 1936, and four arbitration awards rendered in 1937. Family allowances have also been increased, amounting in 1937 to 60 francs per month (formerly 30 francs) for the first child, 100 francs (formerly 50 francs) for the second child, and 150 francs (formerly 120 francs) for the third child, the rate of 200 francs for each child after the third remaining unchanged.

Although the statistics relating to wages are said in the report to be too incomplete to permit a satisfactory study of the purchasing power of wages, some figures are given on the variation in wages in relation to the cost of living. From May 1936 to November 1937, the cost-of-living index for a family of four persons, based on 1930 as 100, rose from 80 to 110, or an increase of 37 percent. The cost of board and lodging of a worker living alone was estimated in 1930 to average 537 francs per month; in 1935, 473 francs; in 1936, 514 francs; and in 1937, 597 francs. From 1930 to 1937 the increase was 11 percent, but from 1935 to 1937 it was 26 percent. This percentage is much below the calculations of the departmental cost-of-living committees. This, it is pointed out, is not surprising, for the determinations of these committees are based on a fixed standard of living, which is not necessarily true of the costs of board and lodging, as, in a period of rapid price increases, increases in the price of board and lodging may be checked by a decrease in the quality or quantity of the services furnished. For the workers as a whole, the determinations of a general index of purchasing power, based on the wage study with its known limitations, can give only a very rough indication. According to the data, the weighted average of hourly wages of skilled workers for the entire country had increased 57 percent and for laborers 65 percent. However, since the length of the working week decreased from 48 to 40 hours, the actual increase in weekly earnings of skilled workers was 31 percent, or less than the increase in the cost of living, and for laborers, 37 percent, or the same as the increase in living costs.

## WAGE SCALE FOR SHIPYARD AND METAL WORKERS IN SWEDEN, 1938

ABOUT 90,000 Swedish workers, including all shipyard, machine shop, and iron workers, are receiving increases in pay and other advantages as a result of an agreement between the Workshop Association of Sweden and the metalworkers' and foundrymen's trade-unions, effective for the year 1938.[9]

By this agreement minimum wages were increased, on an average, 8 öre [10] per hour; vacations with pay were extended from 5 to 6 days per annum, the time being unbroken except by Sundays or holidays;

[9] Data are from report of William W. Corcoran, U. S. consul at Göteborg, March 31, 1938.

[10] Average exchange rate of krona (100 öre) in February 1938=25.9 cents.

and piece workers received a 7½ percent increase in pay. Certain other improvements of working conditions were also obtained, especially for apprentices.

The agreement provides for self-regulation of industrial disputes. The parties to a dispute are to endeavor to settle it by direct written or oral negotiation. But if an agreement cannot be reached during 14 days, each of the parties is to appoint a committee of at least two or at the most six members, who are to try to settle the dispute within 15 days. In case of their failure, a "professional" board, consisting of two representatives of the employers, two representatives of the union, and an impartial chairman selected by these four representatives, is to examine and decide upon the case. The decision of the board is binding upon both parties, unless the case is referred to the labor court within a month after date of the decision.

During the negotiations and proceedings described above, no cessation of work through a strike, blockade, or lock-out is to take place. A decision to stop work after the final settlement of the matter under dispute is not to be made later than 4 weeks after date of final settlement. When a decision to stop work is made, it is to be immediately submitted to the other party but cannot be put into effect earlier than 6 days nor later than 14 days after notification of the other party.

## *Rates for Journeymen*

The minimum-wage scale agreed upon is to be paid according to age and sex, varying rates having been fixed for three separate groups of localities. Group I including Stockholm and its environs, and groups II and III being made up of 104 and 83 localities, respectively.

TABLE 1.—*Minimum Rates Established by Agreement, for Shipyard and Other Metal Workers in Sweden, Effective January 1938*

| Class and age of worker | Minimum hourly rate (in krona) in localities of group— | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| | I | II [1] | III |
| Males in professional work: [2] | | | |
| At least 24 years of age and with at least 7 years' experience in the trade | 0.96 | 0.88 | 0.82 |
| At least 21 years of age and with at least 3 years' experience in the trade | .90 | .81 | .75 |
| Other male workers: | | | |
| At least 20 years of age | .84 | .75 | .71 |
| At least 19 years of age | .69 | .62 | .54 |
| At least 18 years of age | .63 | .53 | .48 |
| At least 17 years of age | .50 | .42 | .36 |
| Female workers: | | | |
| At least 20 years of age | .65 | .58 | .55 |
| At least 18 years of age | .55 | .48 | .45 |

[1] In the city of Göteborg, minimum wages are 0.02 krona higher than in other localities in this group.
[2] Professional work is that for which a period of training of 3 years is required.

Hours of work are to be fixed in accordance with agreements for each separate workshop, subject, however, to the provisions of the hours-of-labor law. A schedule of hours, applicable to one-, two-, and three-shift operation, is contained in the agreement; this schedule is to be in force for establishments where there is no hours agreement.

Overtime is to be paid for according to the following schedule: Monday to Friday, for the first 2 hours' overtime, at the rate of time and a quarter, and thereafter (and on Saturday) time and a half; on Sundays and holidays, for necessary maintenance work, time and a half, and for all other work double time.

### *Rates for Apprentices*

The period of apprenticeship is fixed at 4 years for apprentices younger than 17 years, and 3 years for older apprentices. The minimum-wage scale for apprentices of 17 years and older is shown in the following table. Rates for those under 17 are somewhat lower.

TABLE 2.—*Minimum Wages of Apprentices 17 Years of Age and Over, in Metal Trades in Sweden, Effective January 1938*

| Localities of— | Minimum rate (in krona) for specified 6-month period | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | First | Second | Third | Fourth | Fifth | Sixth |
| Group I | 0.32 | 0.40 | 0.45 | 0.53 | 0.58 | 0.62 |
| Group II | .28 | .36 | .41 | .49 | .54 | .58 |
| Group III | .24 | .32 | .39 | .45 | .50 | .54 |

## EARNINGS OF BOMBAY COTTON-MILL WORKERS, JULY 1937

THE average daily weighted earnings of cotton-mill workers in selected occupations in Bombay City and Island in July 1937 were 15 annas, 5 pie [11] (equivalent approximately to 36 cents in United States currency at the exchange rate then existing). Men (2 loom weavers on piece work) earned as much as 1 rupee, 5 annas, 8 pie; and women (reelers on piece work) as little as 8 annas and 11 pie. The earnings of various other operatives in these mills are also reported in the following table.[12]

[11] Average exchange rate of rupee in July 1937=37.48 cents; anna=1/16 rupee; pie=1/12 anna.

[12] Government of Bombay. Textile Labor Inquiry Committee. Report 1937-38, vol. 1, interim report, pp. 24-25. Bombay, 1938.

*Earnings of Cotton-Mill Workers in Selected Occupations in Bombay, July 1937*

[Average exchange rate of rupee in July 1937=37.48 cents; anna=1/16 of rupee; pie=1/12 of anna]

| Occupation | Average daily earnings or rates [1] | | | Occupation | Average daily earnings or rates [1] | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Men: | | | | Women: | | | |
| Piece workers: | *Rs.* | *a.* | *p.* | Piece workers: | *Rs.* | *a.* | *p.* |
| Ring siders | 0 | 13 | 8 | Reelers | 0 | 8 | 11 |
| Tenters, drawing | 0 | 15 | 11 | Winders, color | 0 | 12 | 8 |
| Tenters, inter | 0 | 15 | 6 | Winders, gray | 0 | 9 | 11 |
| Tenters, roving | 0 | 14 | 10 | Time workers: | | | |
| Tenters, slubbing | 1 | 1 | 0 | Doffers | 0 | 10 | 5 |
| Weavers, 2 looms | 1 | 5 | 8 | Ring siders | 0 | 13 | 8 |
| Time workers: | | | | Tarwallas | 0 | 12 | 11 |
| Doffers | 0 | 10 | 5 | | | | |
| Tarwallas | 0 | 12 | 11 | Weighted average | 0 | 15 | 5 |

[1] Earnings of piece workers; rates of time workers.

The Textile Labor Inquiry Committee was appointed on October 13, 1937, by resolution of the Political and Reforms Department of the Government of Bombay. An interim report of this committee includes a recommendation, dated February 11, 1938, for increases in wages according to a proposed schedule, the proportionate amount of increase to be greater for lower-paid workers.

## WAGES IN RAW-SILK PRODUCTION IN JAPAN, 1936

IN JAPAN in 1936, for workers employed by the year in farming, the daily wage was 50 sen [13] for males and 35 sen for females, and in sericulture 64 sen for males and 48 sen for females. The general average wage per day for workers in raw silk production was 76 yen. Other daily wages in these fields of work are also given in the following table.[14]

*Average Daily Wages in Farming, Sericulture, and Raw-Silk Production in Japan, 1936*

[Average exchange rate of yen (100 sen) in 1936=29.0 cents]

| Industry and occupation | Average daily wage | | Industry and occupation | Average daily wage | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Males | Females | | Males | Females |
| Farming: | *Sen* | *Sen* | Raw silk production: | *Sen* | *Sen* |
| Annual workers | 50 | 35 | General average | [1] 76 | [2] |
| Seasonal workers | 100 | 80 | Foremen | 131 | ..... |
| Day laborers | 89 | 67 | Reelers | ..... | 66 |
| Sericulture: | | | Re-reelers | ..... | 64 |
| Annual workers | 64 | 48 | Cocoon selectors | ..... | 60 |
| Seasonal workers | 98 | 79 | Folders and bookers of silk | 94 | 68 |
| Day laborers | 101 | 79 | Cookers of cocoons | 76 | 58 |
| | | | Other workers | 80 | 63 |

[1] Includes women's wages.
[2] Included with men's wages.

[13] Average exchange rate of 1 yen (100 sen) in 1936=29.0 cents.
[14] Japan. Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry. Section of Statistics. The Statistical Abscract, 1936–37, Tokyo, 1938, pp. 47–48.

# *Employment Offices*

## OPERATIONS OF UNITED STATES EMPLOYMENT SERVICE, APRIL 1938

DESPITE sharp increases in placements made by offices of the United States Employment Service throughout the country and in Hawaii during April, the volume of applicants in search of jobs continued without abatement. During the month over 11 million personal visits were received at employment offices from job seekers (including those registering for unemployment-compensation benefits) and employers. At the end of the month over 7¼ million persons were actively seeking employment through the 1,580 offices of the public employment-office system.

Gains in placements were reported throughout the country in April. Jobs were filled to a total of 217,291, an increase of 30.5 percent in rate over March operations. The greater part of these jobs were with private employers, 153,851 such placements being reported. Men were placed in 86,187 of the private jobs and women in 67,664. Gains in private placements occurred in all but three States.

Public employment also showed a marked increase during April. Placements in 58,179 jobs in regular governmental service or on public-works projects were reported, a gain of 36.4 percent in rate over March. In addition, 5,261 assignments in security-wage employment were made.

Despite the general gains in placements the number of jobs filled remained markedly below the levels for 1937. Total placements were 37.7 percent less than in April 1937. Placements in private jobs were 29.9 percent fewer than last year but were 38.7 percent higher than in April 1936.

The enlarged volume of applications for jobs which has been received at employment offices since last fall continued with but a slight drop in April. Over 1⅛ million applications were received during April, 666,783 new applications from previously unregistered applicants, and 499,414 renewals of lapsed applications. The rate of total current applications during April was 7.5 percent less than in March but was over 80 percent higher than in either April 1937 or April 1936.

Coincident with the filing of applications for jobs, 745,063 initial and 3,557,024 continued claims for unemployment-compensation benefits were filed through the employment offices in the 25 States in which unemployment-insurance payments are now being made.

At the close of April, 7,253,948 persons were actively seeking employment through the United States Employment Service. This number, which includes 5,767,272 men and 1,486,676 women, was 7.0 percent higher than the number registered at the end of March and 31.4 percent greater than the number of active registrants in April 1937. The active file in the 25 unemployment-benefit States was 46.7 higher than in April of last year, while in the nonbenefit States the active file was 9.1 percent above last year.

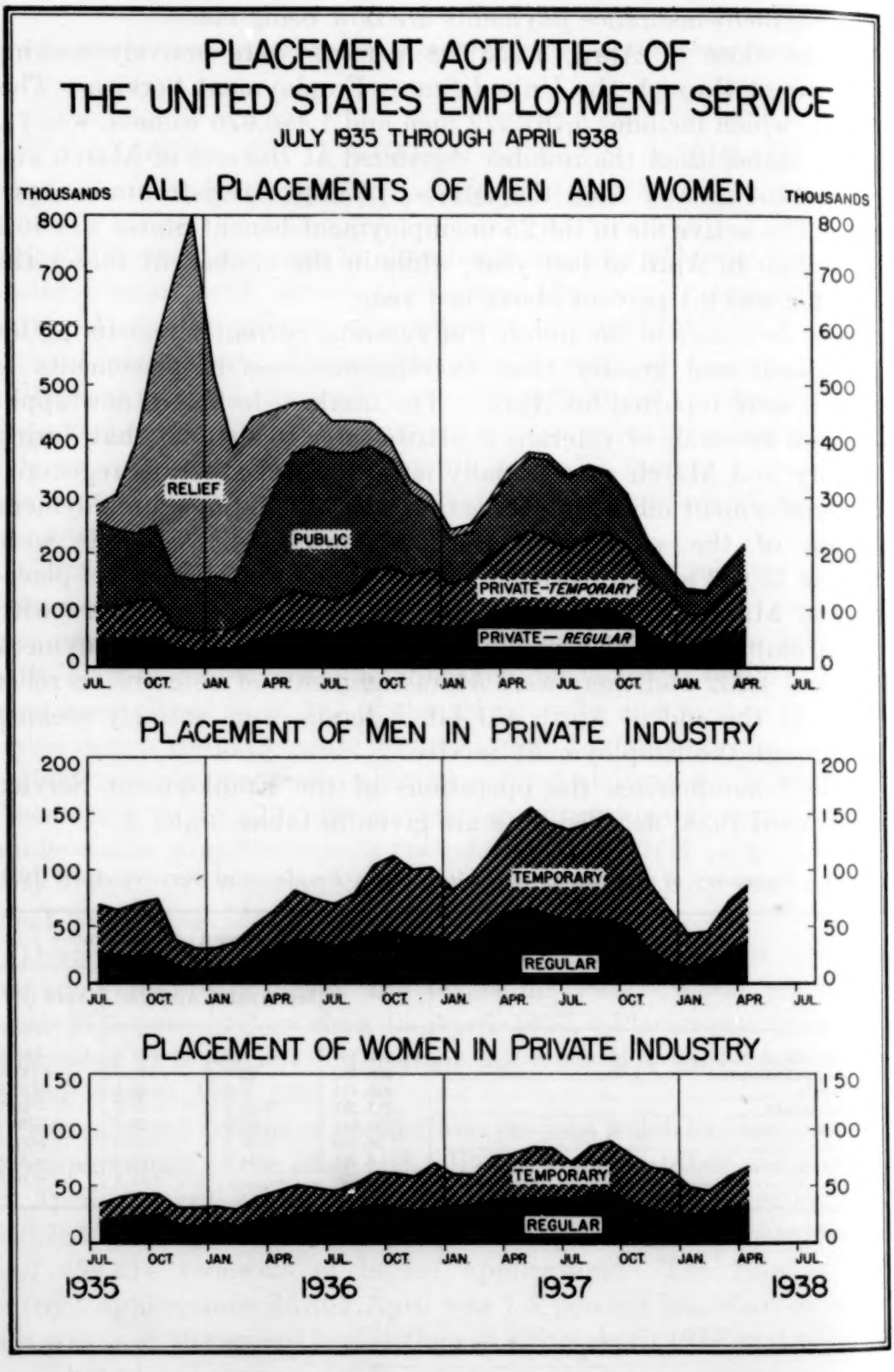
Sharp decreases in the number of veterans currently registering for employment and greater than average increases in placements of veterans were reported for April. The marked decline in new applicants and renewals of veterans is attributable to the fact that during February and March an unusually large total of veterans registered with employment offices in connection with the national employment program of the various veterans' organizations. Veterans were placed in 12,653 jobs in April, 35 percent higher than the rate of placements in March. The greater part, 7,172, of these jobs were with private employers. Placements of veterans in public employment numbered 4,932 and there were 549 assignments of veterans on relief work. At the end of April, 451,448 veterans were actively seeking jobs through the Employment Service.

Table 1 summarizes the operations of the Employment Service during April 1938; detailed data are given in tables 3 and 4.

TABLE 1.—*Summary of Operations of United States Employment Service, April 1938*

| Activity | Number | Percent of change from— | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | March 1938[1] | April 1937 | April 1936 |
| Total applications | 1,166,197 | −7.5 | +81.0 | +85.9 |
| New applications | 666,783 | −12.0 | +131.5 | +121.9 |
| Renewals | 499,414 | −.8 | +40.1 | +52.8 |
| Total placements | 217,291 | +30.5 | −37.7 | −52.2 |
| Private | 153,851 | +26.9 | −29.9 | +38.7 |
| Public | 58,179 | +36.4 | −52.5 | −71.1 |
| Relief | 5,261 | +94.3 | −23.6 | −23.6 |
| Active file | 7,253,948 | ---------- | +31.4 | −19.8 |

[1] Adjusted for number of working days in months.


PLACEMENT ACTIVITIES OF
THE UNITED STATES EMPLOYMENT SERVICE
JULY 1935 THROUGH APRIL 1938
ALL PLACEMENTS OF MEN AND WOMEN
THOUSANDS
800
700
600
500
400
300
200
100
0
RELIEF
PUBLIC
PRIVATE—TEMPORARY
PRIVATE—REGULAR
JUL. OCT. JAN. APR. JUL. OCT. JAN. APR. JUL. OCT. JAN. APR. JUL.
PLACEMENT OF MEN IN PRIVATE INDUSTRY
200
150
100
50
0
TEMPORARY
REGULAR
PLACEMENT OF WOMEN IN PRIVATE INDUSTRY
150
100
50
0
TEMPORARY
REGULAR
JUL. OCT JAN. APR. JUL. OCT. JAN. APR JUL. OCT. JAN. APR. JUL.
1935
1936
1937
1938

A summary of activities relating to veterans is given in table 2.

TABLE 2.—*Summary of Veterans' Activities, April 1938*

| Activity | Number | Percent of change from— | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | March 1938[1] | April 1937 | April 1936 |
| Total applications | 60,833 | −49.8 | +75.8 | +70.7 |
| New applications | 29,024 | −41.0 | +171.5 | +174.9 |
| Renewals | 31,809 | −55.8 | +33.0 | +26.9 |
| Total placements | 12,653 | +35.0 | −43.5 | −62.4 |
| Private | 7,172 | +33.2 | −36.5 | +25.1 |
| Public | 4,932 | +34.5 | −53.3 | −75.1 |
| Relief | 549 | +70.3 | +3.2 | −93.2 |
| Active file | 451,448 | ---------- | +45.1 | −13.4 |

[1] Adjusted for number of working days in months.

TABLE 3.—*Operations of United States Employment Service, April 1938*

TOTAL

| Division and State | Placements | | | | | Field visits | Applications | | | Active file, Apr. 30, 1938 | Personal visits received |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Total[1] | Private | | | Public | | Total | New | | | |
| | | Number | Percent of change from March[2] | Regular (over 1 month) | | | | Number | Percent of change from March[2] | | |
| United States[3] | 217,291 | 153,851 | +27 | 64,128 | 58,179 | 113,398 | 1,166,197 | 666,783 | −12 | 7,253,948 | 11,064,778 |
| New England | 8,547 | 6,250 | +57 | 3,891 | 2,226 | 4,837 | 83,268 | 53,184 | −4 | 723,238 | 1,543,271 |
| Maine | 1,634 | 1,156 | +428 | 978 | 478 | 741 | 11,556 | 5,989 | −20 | 52,686 | 133,508 |
| N. H | 1,038 | 646 | +33 | 333 | 390 | 582 | 7,397 | 3,064 | −23 | 46,596 | 81,164 |
| Vermont | 755 | 512 | +46 | 302 | 242 | 430 | 3,306 | 1,477 | −13 | 19,478 | 27,470 |
| Mass | 1,775 | 1,355 | +36 | 856 | 420 | 1,240 | 30,946 | 22,615 | −16 | 371,185 | 741,023 |
| R. I | 734 | 549 | +23 | 324 | 140 | 677 | 5,192 | 3,214 | +46 | 57,252 | 245,471 |
| Conn | 2,611 | 2,032 | +38 | 1,098 | 556 | 1,167 | 24,871 | 16,825 | +29 | 176,041 | 314,635 |
| Mid. Atlantic | 28,026 | 21,244 | +36 | 9,898 | 5,695 | 12,097 | 290,819 | 182,977 | −28 | 1,966,293 | 4,202,920 |
| New York | 14,383 | 12,080 | +55 | 5,028 | 1,789 | 4,820 | 171,534 | 105,482 | −33 | 630,841 | 1,044,685 |
| N. J | 2,994 | 2,704 | +13 | 1,212 | 275 | 2,370 | 23,758 | 15,121 | +3 | 238,971 | 86,217 |
| Pa | 10,649 | 6,460 | +18 | 3,658 | 3,631 | 4,907 | 95,527 | 62,374 | −22 | 1,096,481 | 3,072,018 |
| E. N. Central | 37,159 | 29,630 | +26 | 11,881 | 5,438 | 17,004 | 247,852 | 129,095 | +6 | 1,282,705 | 886,058 |
| Ohio | 9,865 | 7,163 | +35 | 2,690 | 2,162 | 3,324 | 62,211 | 30,708 | −14 | 395,710 | 209,765 |
| Indiana | 4,669 | 4,214 | +38 | 2,286 | 433 | 2,583 | 50,181 | 33,937 | +98 | 154,700 | 153,014 |
| Illinois | 13,255 | 12,138 | +16 | 4,085 | 963 | 6,359 | 39,348 | 17,464 | −13 | 327,802 | 157,748 |
| Michigan | 4,352 | 2,226 | +39 | 1,006 | 1,004 | 2,825 | 54,518 | 33,190 | −4 | 269,534 | 149,451 |
| Wisconsin | 5,018 | 3,889 | +28 | 1,814 | 876 | 1,913 | 41,594 | 13,796 | +1 | 134,959 | 216,080 |
| W. N. Central | 22,499 | 14,077 | +16 | 6,454 | 7,904 | 16,404 | 86,445 | 36,429 | −27 | 648,026 | 457,648 |
| Minn | 4,425 | 3,423 | +17 | 1,860 | 879 | 6,251 | 18,919 | 10,754 | −47 | 192,750 | 251,753 |
| Iowa | 5,965 | 3,796 | +22 | 1,529 | 1,815 | 3,076 | 14,823 | 5,467 | −7 | 77,914 | 60,428 |
| Missouri | 4,182 | 3,015 | +20 | 1,301 | 1,164 | 2,698 | 27,772 | 10,831 | −20 | 183,950 | 62,119 |
| N. Dak | 1,889 | 1,326 | +4 | 802 | 562 | 852 | 4,939 | 1,534 | +11 | 31,105 | 22,659 |
| S. Dak | 1,541 | 702 | +24 | 286 | 830 | 741 | 3,490 | 1,326 | −3 | 45,398 | 12,910 |
| Nebraska | 2,591 | 1,087 | +15 | 447 | 1,502 | 2,193 | 7,905 | 3,058 | −14 | 52,282 | 26,458 |
| Kansas | 1,906 | 728 | −11 | 229 | 1,152 | 593 | 8,597 | 3,459 | −11 | 64,627 | 21,321 |
| S. Atlantic | 28,758 | 14,427 | +23 | 7,132 | 14,061 | 11,850 | 144,327 | 90,810 | +1 | 884,368 | 1,382,235 |
| Delaware | 1,128 | 765 | +99 | 309 | 355 | 577 | 2,359 | 992 | +3 | 13,255 | 10,095 |
| Maryland | 2,383 | 1,463 | +19 | 818 | 920 | 1,984 | 18,183 | 13,349 | −13 | 119,898 | 223,607 |
| D. C | 2,303 | 2,168 | +37 | 940 | 135 | 625 | 7,399 | 3,929 | −16 | 38,279 | 75,273 |
| Virginia | 4,932 | 2,558 | +22 | 1,686 | 2,308 | 2,084 | 25,001 | 13,866 | −6 | 95,402 | 170,823 |
| W. Va | 2,497 | 1,016 | +22 | 529 | 1,442 | 353 | 32,552 | 23,671 | −4 | 192,244 | 344,743 |
| N. C | 6,595 | 4,039 | +14 | 1,933 | 2,537 | 1,913 | 25,220 | 15,136 | +8 | 149,512 | 452,883 |
| S. C | 2,035 | 484 | +75 | 178 | 1,543 | 933 | 10,567 | 6,775 | +75 | 72,218 | 40,623 |
| Georgia | 5,435 | 1,934 | +8 | 739 | 3,501 | 3,169 | 16,456 | 9,048 | +1 | 125,963 | 42,760 |
| Florida | 1,450 | 0 | ---------- | 0 | 1,320 | 212 | 6,590 | 4,044 | +44 | 77,597 | 21,428 |

[1] Includes 5,261 security-wage placements on work-relief projects.
[2] Adjusted for number of working days in months.
[3] Does not include Alaska.

TABLE 3.—*Operations of United States Employment Service, April 1938*—Continued

TOTAL—Continued

| Division and State | Placements | | | | | Field visits | Applications | | | Active file, Apr. 30, 1938 | Personal visits received |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Total | Private | | | Public | | Total | New | | | |
| | | Number | Percent of change from March | Regular (over 1 month) | | | | Number | Percent of change from March | | |
| E. S. Central | 13,143 | 6,860 | +11 | 3,899 | 6,237 | 4,402 | 71,885 | 41,521 | +5 | 460,853 | 567,369 |
| Kentucky | 1,982 | 1,008 | +35 | 338 | 964 | 577 | 17,702 | 9,720 | +33 | 113,926 | 32,167 |
| Tenn | 3,671 | 1,938 | +4 | 1,123 | 1,733 | 1,560 | 12,945 | 7,729 | −16 | 145,583 | 250,706 |
| Alabama | 4,350 | 3,207 | +1 | 1,918 | 1,122 | 1,276 | 22,220 | 12,393 | −15 | 148,667 | 215,684 |
| Miss | 3,140 | 707 | +84 | 520 | 2,418 | 989 | 19,018 | 11,679 | +37 | 53,277 | 68,812 |
| W. S. Central | 42,396 | 35,347 | +31 | 7,985 | 6,948 | 27,689 | 98,711 | 56,897 | +6 | 469,161 | 764,288 |
| Arkansas | 2,786 | 2,427 | +79 | 420 | 345 | 1,060 | 8,191 | 4,540 | +15 | 65,332 | 21,669 |
| Louisiana | 3,125 | 2,519 | +4 | 1,760 | 605 | 2,498 | 19,546 | 12,803 | +9 | 119,012 | 141,567 |
| Oklahoma | 4,574 | 3,811 | +138 | 410 | 750 | 1,157 | 9,531 | 4,778 | −6 | 44,589 | 31,190 |
| Texas | 31,911 | 26,590 | +23 | 5,395 | 5,248 | 22,974 | 61,443 | 34,776 | +6 | 240,228 | 569,862 |
| Mountain | 11,189 | 6,334 | +46 | 3,494 | 4,768 | 6,303 | 41,097 | 15,554 | −15 | 218,589 | 253,042 |
| Montana | 1,466 | 486 | +72 | 337 | 979 | 799 | 4,727 | 1,564 | −8 | 34,768 | 33,423 |
| Idaho | 1,609 | 981 | +40 | 480 | 628 | 1,225 | 7,504 | 2,257 | +56 | 14,604 | 22,731 |
| Wyoming | 916 | 379 | +51 | 216 | 534 | 350 | 2,754 | 922 | +12 | 9,604 | 15,787 |
| Colorado | 2,624 | 1,766 | +38 | 889 | 846 | 875 | 11,522 | 4,014 | −7 | 61,566 | 50,848 |
| N. Mex | 1,307 | 871 | +194 | 641 | 435 | 1,371 | 4,006 | 2,073 | +58 | 32,060 | 17,174 |
| Arizona | 1,318 | 823 | +36 | 435 | 470 | 614 | 4,417 | 2,294 | −19 | 25,797 | 52,375 |
| Utah | 957 | 420 | +46 | 142 | 492 | 462 | 4,438 | 1,790 | −66 | 35,842 | 51,125 |
| Nevada | 992 | 608 | −2 | 354 | 384 | 607 | 1,729 | 640 | +24 | 4,348 | 9,579 |
| Pacific | 24,290 | 19,595 | +19 | 9,454 | 4,688 | 12,657 | 100,358 | 58,986 | −21 | 597,057 | 1,004,224 |
| Wash | 1,724 | 1,083 | +16 | 559 | 636 | 1,699 | 13,165 | 5,763 | −15 | 108,162 | 50,341 |
| Oregon | 4,220 | 3,120 | +0 | 1,892 | 1,098 | 2,072 | 13,813 | 9,335 | −16 | 91,075 | 166,263 |
| Calif | 18,346 | 15,392 | +24 | 7,003 | 2,954 | 8,886 | 73,380 | 43,888 | −22 | 397,820 | 787,620 |
| Hawaii | 1,284 | 87 | +17 | 40 | 214 | 155 | 1,435 | 1,330 | −18 | 3,658 | 3,723 |

MEN

| Division and State | Placements | | | | | Applications | | | Active file, Apr. 30, 1938 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Total [1] | Private | | | Public | Total | New | | |
| | | Number | Percent of change from March [2] | Regular (over 1 month) | | | Number | Percent of change from March [2] | |
| United States [3] | 148,690 | 86,187 | +30 | 30,780 | 57,431 | 897,956 | 494,078 | −13 | 5,767,272 |
| New England | 5,005 | 2,753 | +73 | 1,709 | 2,188 | 57,925 | 34,288 | −7 | 523,357 |
| Maine | 983 | 513 | +527 | 436 | 470 | 8,491 | 3,697 | −27 | 40,846 |
| New Hampshire | 763 | 378 | +77 | 150 | 385 | 5,556 | 2,059 | −22 | 34,142 |
| Vermont | 501 | 260 | +60 | 153 | 241 | 2,472 | 955 | −15 | 15,289 |
| Massachusetts | 980 | 562 | +62 | 360 | 418 | 22,277 | 15,527 | −16 | 269,708 |
| Rhode Island | 333 | 166 | +6 | 116 | 126 | 3,004 | 1,636 | +30 | 39,175 |
| Connecticut | 1,445 | 874 | +38 | 494 | 548 | 16,125 | 10,414 | +23 | 124,197 |
| Middle Atlantic | 15,770 | 9,156 | +43 | 4,517 | 5,573 | 216,389 | 129,924 | −29 | 1,542,920 |
| New York | 7,513 | 5,310 | +75 | 2,398 | 1,708 | 123,041 | 72,330 | −36 | 479,194 |
| New Jersey | 1,020 | 733 | +3 | 405 | 272 | 18,747 | 11,873 | +11 | 191,948 |
| Pennsylvania | 7,237 | 3,113 | +16 | 1,714 | 3,593 | 74,601 | 45,721 | −22 | 871,778 |

[1] Includes 5,072 security-wage placements on work-relief projects.
[2] Adjusted for number of working days in months.
[3] Does not include Alaska.

TABLE 3.—*Operations of United States Employment Service, April 1938*—Continued

**MEN—Continued**

| Division and State | Placements | | | | | Applications | | | Active file, Apr. 30, 1938 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Total | Private | | | Public | Total | New | | |
| | | Number | Percent of change from March | Regular (over 1 month) | | | Number | Percent of change from March | |
| East North Central | 20,846 | 13,485 | +36 | 4,522 | 5,320 | 98,393 | 103,033 | +7 | 1,076,760 |
| Ohio | 5,748 | 3,092 | +51 | 981 | 2,122 | 49,617 | 24,062 | −16 | 333,723 |
| Indiana | 2,116 | 1,672 | +55 | 686 | 422 | 39,196 | 26,751 | +103 | 127,652 |
| Illinois | 7,069 | 6,016 | +26 | 1,739 | 930 | 28,358 | 11,813 | −14 | 264,713 |
| Michigan | 3,034 | 919 | +40 | 334 | 994 | 48,329 | 29,701 | −4 | 242,202 |
| Wisconsin | 2,879 | 1,786 | +30 | 782 | 852 | 32,893 | 10,706 | +4 | 108,470 |
| West North Central | 16,009 | 7,745 | +22 | 3,130 | 7,774 | 67,723 | 27,216 | −30 | 531,865 |
| Minnesota | 2,602 | 1,627 | +25 | 934 | 858 | 14,256 | 7,846 | −52 | 154,711 |
| Iowa | 4,278 | 2,154 | +34 | 745 | 1,789 | 11,822 | 4,123 | −3 | 64,934 |
| Missouri | 2,873 | 1,709 | +35 | 533 | 1,161 | 21,261 | 8,120 | −22 | 151,381 |
| North Dakota | 1,326 | 792 | −4 | 495 | 534 | 4,147 | 1,181 | +19 | 25,249 |
| South Dakota | 1,282 | 477 | +38 | 166 | 797 | 2,903 | 1,007 | +7 | 38,937 |
| Nebraska | 2,073 | 581 | +11 | 194 | 1,491 | 6,564 | 2,338 | −14 | 43,293 |
| Kansas | 1,575 | 405 | −13 | 63 | 1,144 | 6,770 | 2,601 | −13 | 53,360 |
| South Atlantic | 22,042 | 7,832 | +28 | 3,427 | 13,973 | 111,621 | 68,910 | +1 | 680,667 |
| Delaware | 667 | 310 | +134 | 159 | 349 | 1,674 | 663 | −3 | 10,011 |
| Maryland | 1,747 | 829 | +19 | 434 | 918 | 13,786 | 9,747 | −12 | 93,950 |
| District of Columbia | 924 | 808 | +74 | 320 | 116 | 4,488 | 2,466 | −15 | 26,551 |
| Virginia | 3,959 | 1,591 | +21 | 1,048 | 2,304 | 18,099 | 9,706 | −9 | 71,337 |
| West Virginia | 1,864 | 401 | +33 | 202 | 1,429 | 28,697 | 20,909 | −4 | 169,417 |
| North Carolina | 4,783 | 2,248 | +26 | 809 | 2,516 | 16,964 | 9,681 | +6 | 99,913 |
| South Carolina | 1,849 | 304 | +110 | 102 | 1,539 | 9,029 | 5,560 | +82 | 55,768 |
| Georgia | 4,824 | 1,341 | +7 | 353 | 3,483 | 13,548 | 7,222 | +3 | 96,172 |
| Florida | 1,425 | 0 | ------- | 0 | 1,319 | 5,336 | 2,956 | +39 | 57,548 |
| East South Central | 10,094 | 3,882 | +14 | 1,793 | 6,176 | 58,271 | 32,712 | +6 | 368,541 |
| Kentucky | 1,409 | 478 | +67 | 105 | 924 | 14,833 | 7,884 | +45 | 92,019 |
| Tennessee | 2,658 | 927 | +18 | 443 | 1,731 | 9,798 | 5,949 | −16 | 115,077 |
| Alabama | 3,192 | 2,061 | −2 | 974 | 1,111 | 17,735 | 9,689 | −15 | 117,829 |
| Mississippi | 2,835 | 416 | +90 | 271 | 2,410 | 15,905 | 9,190 | +34 | 43,616 |
| West South Central | 31,592 | 24,606 | +31 | 3,663 | 6,892 | 77,329 | 43,771 | +6 | 381,618 |
| Arkansas | 1,803 | 1,450 | +92 | 90 | 339 | 6,270 | 3,412 | +13 | 53,823 |
| Louisiana | 1,803 | 1,205 | −14 | 823 | 598 | 15,584 | 10,201 | +9 | 99,104 |
| Oklahoma | 3,158 | 2,406 | +211 | 82 | 739 | 7,626 | 3,732 | −4 | 37,661 |
| Texas | 24,828 | 19,545 | +23 | 2,668 | 5,216 | 47,849 | 26,426 | +6 | 191,030 |
| Mountain | 8,646 | 3,848 | +56 | 2,053 | 4,717 | 34,517 | 12,145 | −17 | 186,813 |
| Montana | 1,320 | 353 | +129 | 247 | 966 | 4,214 | 1,235 | −13 | 29,753 |
| Idaho | 1,175 | 549 | +56 | 202 | 626 | 6,655 | 1,969 | +68 | 13,492 |
| Wyoming | 780 | 245 | +81 | 147 | 533 | 2,411 | 753 | +19 | 8,289 |
| Colorado | 1,815 | 969 | +38 | 447 | 836 | 9,118 | 2,911 | −11 | 50,883 |
| New Mexico | 1,027 | 603 | +245 | 433 | 424 | 3,337 | 1,631 | +53 | 27,031 |
| Arizona | 904 | 420 | +78 | 251 | 461 | 3,700 | 1,855 | −21 | 22,983 |
| Utah | 784 | 250 | +34 | 57 | 489 | 3,594 | 1,288 | −70 | 30,500 |
| Nevada | 841 | 459 | −11 | 269 | 382 | 1,488 | 503 | +29 | 3,882 |
| Pacific | 17,419 | 12,803 | +14 | 5,932 | 4,609 | 74,408 | 40,800 | −25 | 471,407 |
| Washington | 1,280 | 648 | +24 | 271 | 627 | 10,707 | 4,280 | −21 | 94,844 |
| Oregon | 3,634 | 2,541 | −3 | 1,637 | 1,091 | 11,049 | 7,056 | −21 | 75,270 |
| California | 12,505 | 9,614 | +20 | 4,024 | 2,891 | 52,652 | 29,464 | −26 | 301,293 |
| Hawaii | 1,267 | 77 | +8 | 34 | 209 | 1,380 | 1,279 | −11 | 3,324 |

TABLE 3.—*Operations of United States Employment Service, April 1938*—Continued

WOMEN

| Division and State | Placements | | | | Applications | | | Active file, Apr. 30, 1938 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Total [1] | Private | | | Total | New | | |
| | | Number | Percent of change from Mar. [2] | Regular (over 1 month) | | Number | Percent of change from Mar. [2] | |
| United States [3] | 68,601 | 67,664 | +23 | 33,348 | 268,241 | 172,705 | −10 | 1,486,676 |
| New England | 3,542 | 3,497 | +47 | 2,182 | 25,343 | 18,896 | +4 | 199,881 |
| Maine | 651 | 643 | +369 | 542 | 3,065 | 2,292 | −7 | 11,840 |
| New Hampshire | 275 | 268 | −2 | 183 | 1,841 | 1,005 | −25 | 12,454 |
| Vermont | 254 | 252 | +33 | 149 | 834 | 522 | −8 | 4,189 |
| Massachusetts | 795 | 793 | +22 | 496 | 8,669 | 7,088 | −15 | 101,477 |
| Rhode Island | 401 | 383 | +33 | 208 | 2,188 | 1,578 | +66 | 18,077 |
| Connecticut | 1,166 | 1,158 | +38 | 604 | 8,746 | 6,411 | +41 | 51,844 |
| Middle Atlantic | 12,256 | 12,088 | +31 | 5,381 | 74,430 | 53,053 | −25 | 423,373 |
| New York | 6,870 | 6,770 | +42 | 2,630 | 48,493 | 33,152 | −27 | 151,647 |
| New Jersey | 1,974 | 1,971 | +17 | 807 | 5,011 | 3,248 | −19 | 47,023 |
| Pennsylvania | 3,412 | 3,347 | +19 | 1,944 | 20,926 | 16,653 | −23 | 224,703 |
| East North Central | 16,313 | 16,145 | +19 | 7,359 | 49,459 | 26,062 | +5 | 205,945 |
| Ohio | 4,117 | 4,071 | +24 | 1,709 | 12,594 | 6,646 | −9 | 61,987 |
| Indiana | 2,553 | 2,542 | +29 | 1,600 | 10,985 | 7,186 | +81 | 27,048 |
| Illinois | 6,186 | 6,122 | +8 | 2,346 | 10,990 | 5,651 | −11 | 63,089 |
| Michigan | 1,318 | 1,307 | +38 | 672 | 6,189 | 3,489 | −9 | 27,332 |
| Wisconsin | 2,139 | 2,103 | +25 | 1,032 | 8,701 | 3,090 | −10 | 26,489 |
| West North Central | 6,490 | 6,332 | +8 | 3,324 | 18,722 | 9,213 | −19 | 116,161 |
| Minnesota | 1,823 | 1,796 | +10 | 926 | 4,663 | 2,908 | −26 | 38,039 |
| Iowa | 1,687 | 1,642 | +9 | 784 | 3,001 | 1,344 | −17 | 12,980 |
| Missouri | 1,309 | 1,306 | +4 | 768 | 6,511 | 2,711 | −14 | 32,569 |
| North Dakota | 563 | 534 | +18 | 307 | 792 | 353 | −11 | 5,856 |
| South Dakota | 259 | 225 | +2 | 120 | 587 | 319 | −25 | 6,461 |
| Nebraska | 518 | 506 | +19 | 253 | 1,341 | 720 | −15 | 8,989 |
| Kansas | 331 | 323 | −8 | 166 | 1,827 | 858 | −6 | 11,267 |
| South Atlantic | 6,716 | 6,595 | +17 | 3,705 | 32,706 | 21,900 | +2 | 203,701 |
| Delaware | 461 | 455 | +80 | 150 | 685 | 329 | +16 | 3,244 |
| Maryland | 636 | 634 | +19 | 384 | 4,397 | 3,602 | −14 | 25,948 |
| District of Columbia | 1,379 | 1,360 | +21 | 620 | 2,911 | 1,463 | −17 | 11,728 |
| Virginia | 973 | 967 | +25 | 638 | 6,902 | 4,160 | +3 | 24,065 |
| West Virginia | 633 | 615 | +16 | 327 | 3,855 | 2,762 | −2 | 22,827 |
| North Carolina | 1,812 | 1,791 | +2 | 1,124 | 8,256 | 5,455 | +12 | 49,599 |
| South Carolina | 186 | 180 | +37 | 76 | 1,538 | 1,215 | +50 | 16,450 |
| Georgia | 611 | 593 | +10 | 386 | 2,908 | 1,826 | −8 | 29,791 |
| Florida | 25 | 0 | ------- | 0 | 1,254 | 1,088 | +59 | 20,049 |
| East South Central | 3,049 | 2,978 | +7 | 2,106 | 13,614 | 8,809 | 0 | 92,312 |
| Kentucky | 573 | 530 | +16 | 233 | 2,869 | 1,836 | −3 | 21,907 |
| Tennessee | 1,013 | 1,011 | −6 | 680 | 3,147 | 1,780 | −15 | 30,506 |
| Alabama | 1,158 | 1,146 | +5 | 944 | 4,485 | 2,704 | −13 | 30,238 |
| Mississippi | 305 | 291 | +77 | 249 | 3,113 | 2,489 | +51 | 9,661 |
| West South Central | 10,804 | 10,741 | +30 | 4,322 | 21,382 | 13,126 | +5 | 87,543 |
| Arkansas | 983 | 977 | +62 | 330 | 1,921 | 1,128 | +24 | 11,509 |
| Louisiana | 1,322 | 1,314 | +29 | 937 | 3,962 | 2,602 | +6 | 19,908 |
| Oklahoma | 1,416 | 1,405 | +70 | 328 | 1,905 | 1,046 | −11 | 6,928 |
| Texas | 7,083 | 7,045 | +21 | 2,727 | 13,594 | 8,350 | +4 | 49,198 |
| Mountain | 2,543 | 2,486 | +33 | 1,441 | 6,580 | 3,409 | −6 | 31,776 |
| Montana | 146 | 133 | +3 | 90 | 513 | 329 | +13 | 5,015 |
| Idaho | 434 | 432 | +24 | 278 | 849 | 288 | +6 | 1,112 |
| Wyoming | 136 | 134 | +16 | 69 | 343 | 169 | −9 | 1,315 |
| Colorado | 809 | 797 | +39 | 442 | 2,404 | 1,103 | +8 | 10,683 |
| New Mexico | 280 | 268 | +121 | 208 | 669 | 442 | +76 | 5,029 |
| Arizona | 414 | 403 | +9 | 184 | 717 | 439 | −8 | 2,814 |
| Utah | 173 | 170 | +67 | 85 | 844 | 502 | −51 | 5,342 |
| Nevada | 151 | 149 | +44 | 85 | 241 | 137 | +9 | 466 |
| Pacific | 6,871 | 6,792 | +29 | 3,522 | 25,950 | 18,186 | −9 | 125,650 |
| Washington | 444 | 435 | +7 | 288 | 2,458 | 1,483 | +8 | 13,318 |
| Oregon | 586 | 579 | +20 | 255 | 2,764 | 2,279 | +3 | 15,805 |
| California | 5,841 | 5,778 | +32 | 2,979 | 20,728 | 14,424 | −12 | 96,527 |
| Hawaii | 17 | 10 | +255 | 6 | 55 | 51 | −71 | 334 |

[1] Includes 748 public placements and 189 security-wage placements on work-relief projects.
[2] Adjusted for number of working days in months.
[3] Does not include Alaska.

TABLE 4.—*Operations of United States Employment Service, April 1938*

VETERANS

| Division and State | Placements | | | | | Applications | | | Active file, Apr. 30, 1938 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | Private | | | Public | | New | | |
| | Total [1] | Number | Percent of change from March [2] | Regular (over 1 month) | | Total | Number | Percent of change from March [2] | |
| United States [3] | 12,653 | 7,172 | +33 | 2,052 | 4,932 | 60,833 | 29,024 | −41 | 451,448 |
| New England | 427 | 207 | +55 | 111 | 198 | 4,078 | 2,072 | −32 | 42,897 |
| Maine | 56 | 16 | +240 | 13 | 40 | 529 | 198 | −36 | 4,021 |
| New Hampshire | 49 | 26 | +26 | 10 | 23 | 365 | 148 | −26 | 2,844 |
| Vermont | 39 | 18 | +74 | 9 | 21 | 137 | 42 | −51 | 962 |
| Massachusetts | 83 | 36 | +139 | 31 | 47 | 1,761 | 983 | −41 | 24,017 |
| Rhode Island | 21 | 13 | −8 | 10 | 8 | 245 | 103 | −54 | 2,852 |
| Connecticut | 179 | 98 | +43 | 38 | 59 | 1,041 | 598 | +7 | 8,201 |
| Middle Atlantic | 1,079 | 588 | +53 | 226 | 394 | 9,442 | 5,077 | −55 | 87,746 |
| New York | 469 | 345 | +137 | 129 | 101 | 3,769 | 2,014 | −45 | 23,807 |
| New Jersey | 99 | 66 | −2 | 32 | 30 | 1,126 | 695 | −83 | 13,622 |
| Pennsylvania | 511 | 177 | +3 | 65 | 263 | 4,547 | 2,368 | −36 | 50,317 |
| East North Central | 1,922 | 1,221 | +39 | 352 | 549 | 14,948 | 6,902 | −34 | 100,703 |
| Ohio | 574 | 343 | +57 | 73 | 217 | 3,510 | 1,426 | −36 | 28,624 |
| Indiana | 138 | 116 | +44 | 49 | 22 | 2,576 | 1,617 | +1 | 12,486 |
| Illinois | 680 | 554 | +35 | 146 | 110 | 2,378 | 884 | −50 | 26,306 |
| Michigan | 273 | 80 | +40 | 22 | 97 | 3,937 | 2,140 | −36 | 21,323 |
| Wisconsin | 257 | 128 | +13 | 62 | 103 | 2,547 | 835 | −44 | 11,964 |
| West North Central | 1,709 | 881 | +36 | 232 | 739 | 5,787 | 2,187 | −52 | 52,175 |
| Minnesota | 256 | 155 | +62 | 64 | 88 | 1,103 | 546 | −61 | 13,966 |
| Iowa | 698 | 380 | +41 | 70 | 245 | 947 | 327 | −46 | 7,405 |
| Missouri | 217 | 120 | +39 | 40 | 97 | 1,919 | 694 | −50 | 15,869 |
| North Dakota | 97 | 46 | −6 | 23 | 51 | 259 | 77 | −20 | 1,896 |
| South Dakota | 140 | 63 | +37 | 10 | 76 | 215 | 72 | −41 | 3,046 |
| Nebraska | 153 | 66 | +90 | 19 | 87 | 502 | 187 | −30 | 3,922 |
| Kansas | 148 | 51 | −24 | 6 | 95 | 842 | 284 | −58 | 6,071 |
| South Atlantic | 1,589 | 660 | +29 | 232 | 900 | 7,175 | 3,758 | −19 | 45,288 |
| Delaware | 57 | 30 | +128 | 10 | 27 | 110 | 39 | −55 | 1,010 |
| Maryland | 177 | 110 | +44 | 52 | 67 | 834 | 499 | −24 | 6,672 |
| District of Columbia | 141 | 123 | +122 | 21 | 18 | 530 | 248 | −24 | 3,320 |
| Virginia | 323 | 134 | +43 | 71 | 164 | 1,013 | 462 | −41 | 5,057 |
| West Virginia | 199 | 26 | +38 | 18 | 172 | 1,519 | 989 | +4 | 8,917 |
| North Carolina | 220 | 106 | +7 | 35 | 113 | 743 | 353 | −30 | 4,746 |
| South Carolina | 94 | 20 | +166 | 4 | 74 | 691 | 340 | +72 | 3,275 |
| Georgia | 293 | 111 | −25 | 21 | 182 | 741 | 315 | −47 | 6,577 |
| Florida | 85 | 0 | ..... | 0 | 83 | 994 | 513 | −8 | 5,714 |
| East South Central | 669 | 236 | +10 | 65 | 426 | 4,159 | 1,778 | −46 | 27,528 |
| Kentucky | 190 | 47 | +28 | 8 | 143 | 1,360 | 421 | −25 | 8,438 |
| Tennessee | 171 | 51 | −8 | 14 | 120 | 1,012 | 455 | −57 | 8,103 |
| Alabama | 203 | 113 | +2 | 31 | 85 | 1,051 | 469 | −54 | 8,298 |
| Mississippi | 105 | 25 | +105 | 12 | 78 | 736 | 433 | −30 | 2,689 |
| West South Central | 2,203 | 1,582 | +35 | 213 | 601 | 5,196 | 2,687 | −39 | 31,047 |
| Arkansas | 132 | 110 | +50 | 9 | 21 | 513 | 233 | −60 | 4,435 |
| Louisiana | 145 | 88 | −18 | 37 | 57 | 912 | 528 | −34 | 7,575 |
| Oklahoma | 361 | 299 | +189 | 15 | 61 | 840 | 360 | −46 | 5,918 |
| Texas | 1,565 | 1,085 | +22 | 152 | 462 | 2,931 | 1,566 | −33 | 13,119 |
| Mountain | 1,033 | 374 | +34 | 165 | 607 | 2,859 | 963 | −34 | 17,142 |
| Montana | 153 | 38 | +211 | 25 | 115 | 563 | 179 | +27 | 2,678 |
| Idaho | 180 | 85 | +3 | 20 | 95 | 593 | 138 | −19 | 1,868 |
| Wyoming | 83 | 17 | +101 | 9 | 66 | 166 | 57 | −21 | 843 |
| Colorado | 208 | 79 | +15 | 33 | 126 | 568 | 207 | −48 | 4,802 |
| New Mexico | 108 | 43 | +118 | 32 | 65 | 326 | 145 | +0 | 2,085 |
| Arizona | 86 | 33 | −16 | 14 | 45 | 279 | 140 | −47 | 2,124 |
| Utah | 135 | 30 | +219 | 7 | 64 | 254 | 71 | −69 | 2,366 |
| Nevada | 80 | 49 | +24 | 25 | 31 | 110 | 26 | −23 | 376 |
| Pacific | 1,929 | 1,418 | +22 | 455 | 511 | 7,103 | 3,528 | −40 | 46,656 |
| Washington | 159 | 89 | +14 | 22 | 70 | 1,153 | 369 | −30 | 8,924 |
| Oregon | 333 | 216 | −13 | 113 | 117 | 1,016 | 546 | −61 | 6,209 |
| California | 1,437 | 1,113 | +34 | 320 | 324 | 4,934 | 2,613 | −34 | 31,523 |
| Hawaii | 93 | 5 | +166 | 1 | 7 | 86 | 72 | −28 | 266 |

[1] Includes 549 security-wage placements on work-relief projects.
[2] Adjusted for number of working days in months.
[3] Does not include Alaska.

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# CAN EMPLOYMENT SERVICE REPORTS BE USED TO MEASURE UNEMPLOYMENT?—PART I

By E. D. Hollander and J. F. Wellemeyer, Jr.,
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## *Comparison of Active File With Unemployment Census*

THE PUBLICATION recently of detailed reports of the voluntary Census of Partial Employment, Unemployment, and Occupations of November 1937 has made it possible for the first time to compare the characteristics of active applicants registered with the United States Employment Service with some general, comprehensive survey of the unemployed population. In making such a comparison it would be a mistake to evaluate the accuracy or completeness of either set of data simply by its conformity or lack of conformity with the other. Though it is to be expected that the two surveys will, to a large extent, overlap in coverage, there are inherent differences in method and definitions which make the points of disagreement as significant in many respects as the points of coincidence.

The Unemployment Census asked, of the population at large, "Are you unemployed and wanting work?" and "Are you able to work?" Persons answering both questions affirmatively were recorded as unemployed, whether totally without work or engaged on emergency relief work, if they were between the ages of 15 and 75.[1] Such a criterion has the advantage that it is simple, direct, unambiguous and comprehensive in its coverage.

The data of the Employment Service active file, on the other hand, are gathered not specifically for counting the unemployed but for placement purposes, as a byproduct of the operation of the public employment offices. These data are, therefore, preselected, inasmuch as they represent the records of persons voluntarily applying to the Service for work. The composition of the active file at a given date reflects the characteristics of the active job seekers at that time. Since an applicant, in order to be considered active, must communicate periodically with the employment office to indicate that he is currently available for a job, the Employment Service reports would overrepresent those among the unemployed who are seeking connections with a new employer and who consider their prospects immediate enough to warrant keeping their registrations active.[2] In a previous

[1] The Unemployment Census also collected data concerning partially employed persons. These data have been omitted, as no comparable material is available in the Employment Service files.

[2] This was true to a larger extent in November 1937 than at present. The introduction of unemployment-compensation payments in 22 States in January 1938 made registration of all unemployed insured workers a condition of receipt of benefits, whether they were seeking new jobs or awaiting recall to old ones. In November 1937 only Wisconsin was paying benefits; by the middle of 1939, all States will be doing so.

discussion [3] it was pointed out that this bias would tend to underrepresent "workless-but-not-jobless" persons, that is, those laid off but maintaining connections with an employer while awaiting a recall to work. It would also diminish Employment Service coverage of "would-be" workers—those who would like to work for pay but who are so remote, in distance, or otherwise, from the possibility of employment, that they are only on the fringes of the labor market.

In spite of these fundamental differences, however, a comparison between the two surveys might be regarded as a test of alternate methods of gathering information concerning unemployment. What do we need to know about unemployment in order to plan the reemployment and rehabilitation of the unemployed? How adequately can that information be obtained by voluntary registration, directly or through placement offices? As will be seen, the Employment Service active file data would seem to afford a fairly accurate cross section of the more immediately employable groups—a cross section that will become more comprehensive as unemployment compensation broadens the coverage of the Employment Service. On the other hand, the active file inventory of November 1937 does not appear to offer complete information concerning workers seeking to enter the labor market, especially the younger ones, although this coverage is likely to follow expansion of the junior counseling and placement services.

All available evidence indicates that certain characteristics of workers exert a selective influence, which renders some workers more susceptible than others to unemployment. Chief among these are sex, race, age, occupation, and industrial affiliation. The active file and the Unemployment Census may be compared on the basis of these factors, although the comparisons of sex, race, and age are more complete than in the case of occupation and industry, since the bases for collecting the latter data vary somewhat between the two surveys. It should also be noted that, although the active file inventory and the voluntary Unemployment Census were taken at approximately the same calendar date,[4] a time lag in the effect of business conditions on the active file has been observed, and in point of fact a slight time difference may be in operation between the two studies.

### SEX AND RACE COMPARISONS

Judging by the Unemployment Census and its relation to the 1930 census of gainful workers, women are more subject to unemployment

[3] U. S. Employment Service. Survey of Employment Service Information, February 1938 (pp. 3-7). Washington, 1938.

[4] The United States Employment Service took an inventory of its active file from November 6 through 13, 1937. The Unemployment Census gathered information of employment status for the week of November 7 through 13, 1937. The dates coincide, but it is known that persons who become unemployed do not register with the Employment Service at once. In fact, variations of the Employment Service active file lag variations of representative business indices by two or three months. Therefore, Employment Service data may represent unemployment, nationally, as of some weeks before the actual date of the inventory. (See also Survey of Employment Service Information, February 1938, p. 28.)

than men. It also appears that colored workers are more seriously affected than white (table 1). As a matter of fact, the only group represented in a smaller proportion in the Unemployment Census than in the 1930 working population was that of white males. On the other hand, as compared to respondents to the census of unemployment, the file of active applicants contained more men of both races and fewer colored women.

The percentage distribution according to race was almost identical in the two surveys. The similarity was most striking in the case of the male workers; and the smaller figure for colored females in the active file might be partly explained by the nonurban character of a great many types of occupations for colored women. Furthermore, it is not difficult to understand that many of this group would report themselves to the Unemployment Census as wanting work (because they want the income that work brings) although geographically or because of personal characteristics they are too remote from the possibility of employment to maintain active applications with the Employment Service.

TABLE 1.—*Percentage Distribution, by Sex and Race, of Employment Service Active File, of Respondents[1] to Unemployment Census, and of Total Gainful Workers, 1930*

| Race and sex | Applicants in active file, November 1937 | | Respondents[1] in unemployment census, November 1937 | | Gainful workers, 1930 census | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | *Number* | *Percent* | *Number* | *Percent* | *Number* | *Percent* |
| Total | 4,125,102 | 100.0 | 7,845,016 | 100.0 | 48,829,920 | 100.0 |
| Whites | 3,557,406 | 86.2 | 6,708,481 | 85.5 | 42,584,497 | 87.2 |
| Males | 2,771,069 | 67.1 | 5,062,965 | 64.5 | 33,766,933 | 69.1 |
| Females | 786,337 | 19.1 | 1,645,516 | 21.0 | 8,817,564 | 18.1 |
| Others | 567,696 | 13.8 | 1,136,535 | 14.5 | 6,245,423 | 12.8 |
| Males | 415,451 | 10.1 | 754,010 | 9.6 | 4,310,871 | 8.8 |
| Females | 152,245 | 3.7 | 382,525 | 4.9 | 1,934,552 | 4.0 |

[1] Includes "totally unemployed" and "emergency workers."

## AGE DISTRIBUTION IN THE TWO SURVEYS

On the whole, the age patterns of the active file and the Unemployment Census were very similar. The comparison of the two age distributions indicates that the Employment Service seems to attract the most employable age groups; that is, people between 25 and 50 years of age, at the expense of the extremes, particularly the youngest age group (table 2). Whereas the Unemployment Census revealed unemployment of white workers at its highest among both males and females under 20, and males between 60 and 65, the active file somewhat understated the size of these groups and correspondingly overstated the presence of workers in the middle working years. These differences may again be due to the existence of "would-be" workers; that is, younger members of the family who would not be in search of work if the principal earner of the family had work. This group

would report themselves to the census as unemployed, but many apparently have not found their way to the employment offices. Thus the disagreement between the two surveys at this point might be partially an overstatement of the active labor supply by the census and partially an understatement by Employment Service records. This reasoning is in part supported by the large number of young "new workers," especially of women, reported by the census.

However, the relationship between age, race, and sex in both surveys brings out several interesting points. The most noticeable one is the strength of the race factor. In the case of white men and women, the effect of unemployment seems to be relatively lighter in the most employable age groups. Among the colored, however, the effect of race seems to be general, almost without regard to age level. Among colored males particularly, the distribution seems almost parallel to the distribution for the total working population according to the 1930 census, indicating that for this group race alone may be a major barrier to employment.

Among colored, as among whites, the tendency of the active file to minimize the unemployment of the youngest workers is apparent. Among women of both races, both the active file and the Unemployment Census recorded less unemployment, relatively, after the middle age group than in the case of males. Regarding white women, unemployment decreased very rapidly between the ages of 19 and 30. It seems reasonable to assume that marriage was the most important cause of this decline. For colored females, however, no such decline was evident. No doubt some of the important factors causing large numbers of older colored women to seek work are the general employment conditions of colored males, including such factors as the hazards of unemployment at all age levels and low wage scales in general.

TABLE 2.—*Percentage Distribution, by Age, Sex, and Color, of Employment Service Active File, and of Respondents [1] to Unemployment Census*

| Age group | Men | | | | Women | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | White | | Colored | | White | | Colored | |
| | Applicants in active file | Respondents,[1] Unemployment Census | Applicants in active file | Respondents,[1] Unemployment Census | Applicants in active file | Respondents,[1] Unemployment Census | Applicants in active file | Respondents,[1] Unemployment Census |
| All ages | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 |
| Under 20 years | 7.0 | 12.5 | 6.1 | 10.2 | 16.1 | 22.0 | 9.5 | 11.0 |
| 20–24 years | 16.1 | 16.0 | 15.1 | 15.3 | 21.7 | 20.2 | 18.3 | 17.4 |
| 25–44 years | 43.2 | 36.8 | 49.2 | 45.3 | 39.4 | 36.3 | 52.5 | 51.6 |
| 45–64 years | 30.5 | 30.2 | 26.9 | 25.4 | 21.5 | 20.2 | 18.8 | 18.3 |
| 65 years and over | 3.2 | 4.5 | 2.7 | 3.8 | 1.3 | 1.3 | 0.9 | 1.7 |

[1] Includes "totally unemployed" and "emergency workers."

### OCCUPATIONAL GROUPINGS

In the comparison of the samples by occupational grouping only the most general groups were used because of the difficulty of matching classifications. The classes set up are extremely broad, and there are doubtless points at which they are not identical.

Several interesting points are at once apparent. The general conformity of the two series is as striking, in this case, as in the previous comparisons (table 3.) A very high rate of unemployment among male manual workers is evident in both surveys, especially the active file, compared to the working population of 1930. White-collar workers, the males especially, appeared to suffer from unemployment rather less than manual workers. Both surveys indicate this, but the Unemployment Census recorded a greater rate of unemployment in the white-collar class than did the active file. This appears to confirm what has been long suspected—that unemployed white-collar workers are rather more reluctant than other workers to register with the Employment Service. A similar influence may have affected registration of female manual workers who, although heavily represented in the Unemployment Census, appear in the active file only in the same proportion as in the 1930 working population. Female service workers, on the other hand, though suffering from no greater than average unemployment as reported by the Unemployment Census, are heavily overrepresented in the active file. This overweighting has long been apparent and has generally been attributed to the rapid turn-over among service workers and their consequent extensive use of the public placement service. Care must be exercised to avoid drawing unwarranted conclusions from these distributions. In general terms, it is probably safe to say that the active file, as an index of unemployment from the occupational standpoint, tends to overweight the manual workers and service groups, and to underweight the white-collar workers.

On several occasions attention has been drawn to a class of "would-be" workers, who are affecting the Unemployment Census distribution without any apparent corresponding effect on the active file. Judging by some of the differences in sex, race, age and occupational distribution, this "would-be" group can be divided into two classifications—one composed of young men and young women without working experience; the other made up of women, such as the homemaker of a family, who would take a job if she could get it, when additional family income is needed. The existence of this group is demonstrated very clearly by the data covering the number of weeks worked during the 12 months previous to the census. Of all the women reporting, 44 percent had had no work at all during the previous year, as opposed to 27 percent for the men. This demonstrates that nearly half of

the women reporting themselves as unemployed were so remote from the labor market that they had had no work of any kind for a year. It is altogether possible that many of the women thus reporting themselves as unemployed would probably not do so when the man of the family had a job.

TABLE 3.—*Percentage Distribution by Occupational Group and by Sex, of Employment Service Active File, of Respondents [1] to Unemployment Census, and of Total Gainful Workers*

| Occupational group | Men | | | Women | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Applicants in active file, November 1937 | Respondents,[1] Unemployment Census, November 1937 | Gainful workers, Census of 1930 | Applicants in active file, November 1937 | Respondents,[1] Unemployment Census, November 1937 | Gainful workers, Census of 1930 |
| White-collar workers | 10.4 | 13.7 | 25.7 | 31.6 | 35.9 | 44.3 |
| Farmers | 4.5 | 3.2 | 15.1 | 0.1 | 0.2 | 2.4 |
| Farm laborers | 8.8 | 13.1 | 9.8 | 0.8 | 3.1 | 6.0 |
| Manual workers | 71.3 | 66.6 | 46.7 | 25.7 | 36.9 | 25.8 |
| Service workers | 5.0 | 3.4 | 2.7 | 41.7 | 23.9 | 21.5 |

[1] Includes "totally unemployed" and "emergency workers."

## INDUSTRIES REPRESENTED

In its industrial composition the active file paralleled the Unemployment Census in most respects (table 4). In both counts, the men were heavily concentrated in three major industry groups: agriculture, forestry, and fishing; manufacturing; and building. These three accounted for about two-thirds of the registrants in each case. Workers from the construction industry were relatively less numerous in the active file than among Unemployment Census respondents, although it was anticipated that the close association of the Employment Service with that industry in recruiting labor for public construction projects would have brought building workmen into the active file rather more than workers from other fields. The agricultural group was somewhat overrepresented in the active file, compared to the census, and the manufacturing group somewhat underrepresented, although less than was generally expected. Of the manufacturing industries, the metal and machinery trades, which among them accounted for more than one-tenth of the Unemployment Census total, were considerably underrepresented in the active file. The converse was true of the distributive trades.

Half of the women recorded by industry in the Unemployment Census were found in two groups: 30 percent from maufacturing and 22 percent from the domestic and personal services. In the active

file, however, these proportions were nearly reversed: only 20 percent were drawn from manufacturing and 39 percent were from domestic and personal services. The textile and clothing industries, particularly, accounted for one-sixth of the women classified in the census but for only half as great a proportion of Employment Service applicants.

It is characteristic of registrations of unemployed workers, as contrasted with employed, that many of the registrants cannot be considered attached to any industry at the time of the registration. Whereas an employed worker can always be identified with the industry in which he is working, an unemployed person may have never worked or may have been so long unemployed that his industrial attachments are too tenuous to be worth recording. This may be the case even where the same workers can be classified as having an occupation, since an occupation is, so to speak, a personal attribute of the worker, while an industrial attachment is that of the industry of whose working force he is, or has recently been, a member.

The precise point, in terms of length of unemployment, when a worker may be considered no longer attached to any industry, is more or less a matter for arbitrary classification. In the case of applicants of the Employment Service certain specific tests are applied; in the case of the Unemployment Census, the respondent himself decided. Persons who had never worked would be industrially unclassifiable in both registrations; but many long-unemployed workers who in the census would report themselves attached to an industry would be classified as unattached by Employment Service standards. As a matter of fact, those not affiliated with any industry comprised a large part of both registrations. In the case of the women it is particularly noteworthy that the unclassifiable group was about one-fifth of the census total and about two-fifths of the number reported by the Employment Service, where the tests of industrial attachment are more exacting. The significant fact is that by either measure—self-classification or classification by a definite standard—the unemployed women were more remote from industrial affiliation than the men. Indeed, one of the characteristics of the unemployed in the United States is the presence of a disproportionately large group of women many of whom are in various ways and to various degrees remote from the market for immediate employment. This is demonstrated by the industrial composition of both the active file and the census as well as by the occupational composition of the latter, in which the female "new workers" were four-fifths as numerous as the men of the same class, although men outnumbered women by nearly three to one in the total returns.

TABLE 4.—*Percent Distribution by Industrial Group [1] and by Sex, of Employment Service Active File and of Respondents [2] to Unemployment Census*

| Industry group | Men | | Women | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Applicants in active file | Respondents,[1] Unemployment Census | Applicants in active file | Respondents,[2] Unemployment Census |
| Total classifiable | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 |
| Agriculture, forestry, and fishing | 23.4 | 20.4 | 2.2 | 3.7 |
| Extraction of minerals | 5.3 | 3.8 | .1 | |
| Building and construction | 16.5 | 20.6 | .3 | .2 |
| Manufacturing | 23.1 | 26.4 | 20.2 | 29.8 |
| Distribution, commercial and mechanical services | 13.0 | 11.6 | 15.5 | 19.0 |
| Transportation and communication | 6.2 | 7.0 | 1.0 | 2.0 |
| Governmental and professional service | 5.9 | 3.6 | 11.7 | 11.2 |
| Hotels, restaurants, and amusements | 4.2 | 4.1 | 10.2 | 11.7 |
| Domestic and personal services | 2.4 | 2.5 | 38.8 | 22.4 |

[1] Excluding unspecified new workers and others industrially unclassifiable.
[2] Includes "totally unemployed" and "emergency workers."

## *An Experimental Use of Employment Service Reports*

It is illuminating to observe what result would have been obtained if the distribution of the active file, by sex, race, age, occupation, and industry had been applied to one of the standard estimates of unemployment for November 1937, and the data thus derived used in lieu of a census. On the whole, it may be said that this method would have yielded substantially the same information as the Unemployment Census revealed, although in some respects the differences would have been considerable.

The total would have been about the same as the number of respondents to the Unemployment Census, or a little less, since the most widely accepted estimates for November ranged between 7 and 10 million. (The census itself, by means of an enumerative check, reported a total somewhere between 8 and 11 million.) The hypothetical survey would contain a slightly lower proportion of women (particularly colored women) than the Unemployment Census did. Conversely, the proportion of white males would be higher. Such a survey would rather considerably understate unemployment among young workers (under 20) of both sexes, and overstate the proportion of white males between 25 and 45, and of colored females between 40 and 55.

Of broad occupational classes, the hypothetical count, compared to the Unemployment Census, would overstate somewhat the number of male nonagricultural manual workers, and understate farm laborers and white collar workers. Among females, the number of service workers among the unemployed would be seriously exaggerated, while other manual and all white collar workers would be correspondingly understated. Among industrial classes, the most serious varia-

tions would be, again, in the overrepresentation of women from the service trades and in the relative scarcity of unemployed women from manufacturing.

### *Future Possibilities*

If our hypothetical survey were advanced to 1939, the operation of unemployment compensation in all States would tend to remove some of the industrial and occupational biases in the Employment Service data. Specifically, the result would be to increase the proportion of workers from manufacturing and clerical industries and occupations, at the expense of agricultural workers and service workers in general. Because of these shifts, unemployment compensation will also increase the proportion of the more employable age groups. Only considerable expansion of placement services to young people will suffice to attract young people to the Employment Service in proportion to their apparent incidence in the unemployed population.

Although the Employment Service data will always understate the groups most remote from the prospect of immediate employment and correspondingly exaggerate the extent of unemployment among the more immediately employable workers, the prospect is that the active file not many months hence will provide at least a usably accurate cross section of the unemployed population, as it might be measured by a voluntary registration.

# *Trend of Employment and Pay Rolls*

## SUMMARY OF REPORTS FOR APRIL 1938

THERE was a small increase, about 124,000, in nonagricultural employment in April, exclusive of W. P. A. and other Federal and State emergency projects. Retail trade and construction activity increased seasonally, offsetting marked declines in factory and mining employment. Ordinarily about 400,000 employees are taken on during April as seasonal industrial activity increases.

The decline from April of last year amounted to more than 2,500,000 workers, while since last autumn, when the marked reduction in industrial activity began, it is estimated that approximately 3,000,000 people were laid off.

Factory employment continued to decline in April in contrast with the slight seasonal gains of recent years. The decline of 2.6 percent since March indicated the release of approximately 180,000 wage earners from their jobs. Weekly wage disbursements to factory workers fell 3.5 percent or about $5,200,000. Compared with the same month of last year, factory employment was down 22 percent and pay rolls, 33 percent, the reduction in number of workers being estimated at 1,900,000 and in weekly pay rolls at $70,000,000.

Factors which caused a greater decrease in pay rolls than in employment were the further curtailment of plant operating time, the observance of Good Friday during the midmonth reporting pay period, and wage-rate reductions affecting about 40,000 workers in establishments which reported to the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics. These rate reductions were concentrated chiefly in brass, shoe, and cotton factories.

In the executive and legislative services of the Federal Government employment increased slightly over the preceding month, and in the judicial and military services decreases were reported. In keeping with the policy of increasing expenditures on Federal and other public programs when decreases occur in industrial employment, there was a marked gain in the number of persons working on most of the programs financed wholly or partially from Federal funds in April. The most marked increases occurred on Federal projects

under The Works Program, on State-roads projects, and on projects financed by P. W. A. funds.

Most manufacturing industries reduced their working forces. Of the 89 industries regularly surveyed, 70 had fewer employees in mid-April than in mid-March. As in earlier months, the durable-goods industries as a group reported a larger decline in employment (3.3 percent) than the nondurable-goods industries (2.1 percent). Considerable numbers of workers were laid off by machinery plants, railroad repair shops, and steel and automobile plants, although pay rolls in steel and automobile plants were about the same as in March. Reductions in employment in cotton goods and in the clothing industries were partly seasonal. Employment gains were reported by some of the building-supply industries, such as brick and cement, and in the manufacture of foods.

Class I railroads laid off about 15,000 men, although employment usually increases in April. About 40,000 coal miners lost their jobs as demand for coal declined. Public utilities reported little change in employment. Employment increased during the month in private building construction and in quarries, but the gains were smaller than usual for April.

The most important employment increase during the month was in retail trade, where approximately 200,000 workers were taken on to handle Easter and spring buying, which reached a peak in mid-April. This expansion in employment, amounting to 11.6 percent for stores selling general merchandise, was delayed this year because of the late date of Easter. Wholesale firms continued to reduce their forces slightly.

### *Industrial and Business Employment*

Gains in employment from March to April were reported for 19 of the 89 manufacturing industries surveyed monthly by the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics and for 8 of the 16 nonmanufacturing industries covered.

Factory employment as a whole fell 2.6 percent and factory pay rolls dropped 3.5 percent. Normally employment in manufacturing industries shows a slight increase in April while pay rolls usually decline by about 1 percent. Comparisons with April of last year show decreases of 22 percent in employment and 33 percent in wage disbursements. As in recent previous months, employment in the durable-goods industries declined more sharply than in the nondurable-goods group, the decrease for the former being 3.3 percent and for the latter 2.1 percent. The durable-goods industries had 29 percent fewer employees and paid out 42 percent less in weekly wages in April 1938 than in

April 1937. For the nondurable-goods group the employment decline over the year interval was 15 percent and the pay-roll reduction was 20 percent.

The largest numbers of factory workers released since March were in electrical machinery plants, foundries, automobile plants, steel mills, steam railroad repair shops, woolen mills, cotton mills, and in men's clothing, women's clothing, furniture, and shoe factories. Among the manufacturing industries showing employment increases, chiefly seasonal, were the cement, brick, radio, ice-cream, canning, fertilizer, and beverage industries.

Easter buying stimulated employment and increased pay rolls between March and April in retail trade. The gains of 6.4 percent in employment and 5.2 percent in pay rolls were larger than the customary April increases because of the fact that the late date of Easter this year caused the Easter buying to be concentrated in April. For the spring season as a whole, the increase in employment was smaller than in the 3 preceding years, but larger than in the years 1929 to 1934, inclusive. Each of the major retail groups shared in the April expansion, with the exception of wood, coal, and ice dealers and dealers handling durable consumers' goods such as automobiles, furniture, and jewelry.

In building construction (exclusive of projects financed by the Public Works Administration or Reconstruction Finance Corporation funds, or by regular appropriations of the Federal, State, and local governments) employment increased 5.5 percent and pay rolls 7.3 percent. These percentages are based on reports from 12,839 contractors engaged in erecting, altering, and repairing private buildings. Althouth the gains were less pronounced then in preceding years, they were reported for all sections of the country except the East North Central States.

There was a seasonal employment gain of 7.3 percent in quarrying and a small gain in crude petroleum producing. In bituminous-coal mining there was an 8-percent employment reduction which is less than the April reductions shown in 1932, 1935, and 1937, but larger than the decreases shown for the other years since 1929. In anthracite mining employment fell 3.8 percent and in metalliferous mining, 1.2 percent. Employment in public utilities, insurance, and hotels, showed little or no change over the month interval. The gain of 13.5 percent in dyeing and cleaning employment was larger than seasonal. The 2-percent decline in brokerage continued the virtually unbroken succession of declines which began in May 1937, while the 0.7-percent reduction in wholesale-trade employment continued the

downward trend which has been in evidence since October 1937. Laundries reported an increase of 0.5 percent in employment.

Class I railroads had 900,977 workers (exclusive of executives, officials, and staff assistants) on their rolls in April, according to a preliminary tabulation by the Interstate Commerce Commission. This was 1.5 percent, or nearly 15,000 workers, lower than the number employed in March. April pay rolls for railroads were not available when this report was prepared. For March they amounted to $141,847,183 as against $130,886,631 for February, a gain of 8.4 percent.

*Hours and earnings.*—The average hours worked per week in April by factory wage earners were 34.2, a decrease of 1.0 percent from March. Corresponding average hourly earnings (65.2 cents) were 0.4 percent lower than in March and average weekly earnings ($22.28) were 1.0 percent lower.

Gains in average hours worked per week were reported by 6 of the 14 nonmanufacturing industries for which man-hour data are available and increased average hourly earnings were shown by 10. Average weekly earnings were higher in 5 of the 16 nonmanufacturing industries covered.

Previous to January 1938, the wording of the definition on the schedules for public utilities, wholesale and retail trade, hotels, and brokerage and insurance firms called for the inclusion of higher-salaried employees such as corporation officers, executives, and others whose duties are mainly supervisory. These employees have, for the most part, always been excluded from employment reports for other industries, and beginning with January it was requested that they be omitted also for the industries named above. For this reason, the average hours worked per week, average hourly earnings, and average weekly earnings for these industries are not comparable with the figures appearing in issues of this report dated earlier than January 1938.

Employment and pay-roll indexes and average weekly earnings in April 1938 for all manufacturing industries combined, for selected nonmanufacturing industries, and for class I railroads, with percentage changes over the month and year intervals except in the few industries for which data are not available, are presented in table I.

TABLE 1.—*Employment, Pay Rolls, and Earnings in All Manufacturing Industries Combined and in Nonmanufacturing Industries, April 1938 (Preliminary Figures)*

| Industry | Employment | | | Pay rolls | | | Average weekly earnings | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Index, April 1938 | Percentage change from— | | Index, April 1938 | Percentage change from— | | Average in April 1938 | Percentage change from— | |
| | | March 1938 | April 1937 | | March 1938 | April 1937 | | March 1938 | April 1937 |
| | (*1923–25 = 100*) | | | (*1923–25 = 100*) | | | | | |
| All manufacturing industries combined [1] | 79.6 | −2.6 | −22.0 | 70.7 | −3.5 | −32.6 | $22.28 | −1.0 | −13.5 |
| Class I steam railroads [2] | 51.1 | −1.5 | −19.3 | [3] | [3] | [3] | [3] | [3] | [3] |
| | (*1929 = 100*) | | | (*1929 = 100*) | | | | | |
| Coal mining: | | | | | | | | | |
| Anthracite [4] | 57.0 | −3.8 | −12.5 | 39.0 | −17.6 | −43.9 | 22.26 | −14.4 | −35.9 |
| Bituminous [4] | 85.7 | −8.0 | −4.5 | 56.0 | −18.1 | −11.9 | 17.36 | −11.0 | −7.8 |
| Metalliferous mining | 61.3 | −1.2 | −19.6 | 53.4 | −5.3 | −30.5 | 26.98 | −4.1 | −13.5 |
| Quarrying and nonmetallic mining | 41.7 | +7.3 | −21.5 | 33.9 | +12.2 | −29.5 | 20.55 | +4.6 | −10.3 |
| Crude petroleum producing | 73.8 | +.2 | −2.6 | 68.0 | +.1 | +.5 | 34.28 | −.2 | +3.2 |
| Public utilities: | | | | | | | | | |
| Telephone and telegraph | 74.8 | −.1 | −2.4 | 91.6 | −1.1 | +6.2 | [5] 31.30 | −.9 | +8.7 |
| Electric light and power and manufactured gas | 91.8 | −.2 | −1.4 | 97.5 | −1.1 | +2.1 | [5] 33.45 | −.9 | +3.6 |
| Electric-railroad and motor-bus operation and maintenance | 71.1 | +.4 | −2.4 | 70.0 | +.2 | +1.0 | [5] 32.21 | −.2 | +3.5 |
| Trade: | | | | | | | | | |
| Wholesale | 88.5 | −.7 | −3.7 | 74.6 | −.1 | −1.1 | [5] 29.59 | +.6 | +2.7 |
| Retail | 88.2 | +6.4 | −.7 | 72.2 | +5.2 | +.4 | [5] 21.09 | −1.1 | +1.1 |
| General merchandising | 101.0 | +11.6 | +1.4 | 89.4 | +8.7 | +.4 | [5] 17.66 | −2.5 | −1.0 |
| Other than general merchandising | 84.9 | +4.7 | −1.4 | 68.6 | +4.4 | +.5 | [5] 23.98 | −.4 | +1.9 |
| Hotels (year-round) [4] [6] | 93.5 | + [7] | −2.7 | 80.5 | −.5 | −.2 | [5] 14.87 | −.6 | +2.6 |
| Laundries [4] | 95.3 | +.5 | −3.0 | 80.7 | +2.6 | +.4 | 17.24 | +2.1 | +3.5 |
| Dyeing and cleaning [4] | 111.8 | +13.5 | +2.4 | 87.2 | +27.9 | +8.9 | 21.58 | +12.6 | +6.3 |
| Brokerage | [3] | −2.0 | −19.6 | [3] | −3.4 | −24.7 | [5] 34.47 | −1.4 | −6.4 |
| Insurance | [3] | +.2 | +2.5 | [3] | −.3 | −1.5 | [5] 36.75 | −.5 | −3.9 |
| Building construction | [3] | +5.5 | −25.4 | [3] | +7.3 | −24.2 | 28.66 | +1.8 | +1.7 |

[1] Revised indexes; adjusted to 1933 Census of Manufactures.
[2] Preliminary; source—Interstate Commerce Commission.
[3] Not available.
[4] Indexes adjusted to 1935 census. Comparable series back to January 1929 presented in January 1938 issue of the pamphlet, Employment and Pay Rolls.
[5] Average weekly earnings not strictly comparable with figures published in issues of the Monthly Labor Review dated earlier than April 1938 (except for the January figures appearing in the March issue), as they now exclude corporation officers, executives, and other employees whose duties are mainly supervisory.
[6] Cash payments only; the additional value of board, room, and tips cannot be computed.
[7] Less than 1/10 of 1 percent.

## *Public Employment*

For the month ending April 15, 1938, employment on P. W. A. projects was 104,000, an increase of 11 percent compared with the preceding period. This increase occurred on that part of the program financed from E. R. A. A. 1935, 1936, and 1937 funds, 81,000 working on projects financed by these funds during the month. Virtually the same number as in March (nearly 23,000) were working on Federal and non-Federal projects financed from N. I. R. A. funds. April pay-roll disbursements for all P. W. A. projects totaled $8,186,000.

Construction projects financed by regular Federal appropriations registered an increase of 11 percent in the number at work during the

month ending in mid-April. The maximum number employed during any 1 week of the month was 174,000, approximately 17,000 more than in March. Public road construction projects were chiefly responsible for this seasonal increase. Gains in employment were reported for all types of projects with the exception of Rural Electrification Administration projects and naval vessel construction. Monthly pay rolls for all types of projects exceeded $17,522,000.

From mid-March to mid-April, 3,200 employees were at work on projects financed by the Reconstruction Finance Corporation, a decrease of 300 compared with the preceding period. All of this decrease was on water and sewerage projects, where some of the larger subcontractors are completing their work. Pay-roll disbursements for the month amounted to $492,000.

Continued expansion of The Works Program brought the total number working on these projects, exclusive of Student Aid, to 2,928,000. Employment on projects operated by the Works Progress Administration was 2,581,000, the highest level reached since November 1936. More than 189,000 were at work on Federal projects under The Works Program and 158,000 on work projects of the National Youth Administration. April data for Student Aid projects will not be available until next month. In March 327,000 were working on Student Aid projects. Exclusive of Student Aid, pay rolls for The Works Program in April totaled $143,217,000.

Employment in the regular services of the Federal Government increased in the executive and legislative services. Decreases were noted in the judicial and military services. Of the 826,000 employees in the executive service in April, 114,000 were working in the District of Columbia and 712,000 outside the District. Force-account employees (employees who are on the Federal pay roll and are engaged on construction projects) were 7 percent of the total number of employees in the executive service. The most marked increases in employment occurred in the Department of Agriculture, the War Department, and the Navy Department.

There was a decrease of 3 percent in the force of the Civilian Conservation Corps. This brought the total to 308,000 employees, the lowest level since September 1937. All groups of workers with the exception of Reserve officers showed decreases in the number working. Of the total number in camps, 265,000 were enrollees, 5,000 Reserve officers, 300 nurses, 1,500 educational advisers, and 36,000 supervisory and technical employees. Monthly pay rolls for all groups of workers totaled $14,363,000.

Employment on State road projects rose 14 percent, as the result of seasonal influences. Of the 146,000 working in April, 132,000 were engaged on maintenance projects and 14,000 on new road construction. Pay rolls for both types of work amounted to $9,937,000.

A summary of Federal employment and pay-roll statistics for March and April is given in table 2.

TABLE 2.—*Summary of Federal Employment and Pay Rolls, April 1938* [1] *(Preliminary Figures)*

| Class | Employment | | Percentage change | Pay rolls | | Percentage change |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | April | March | | April | March | |
| Federal services: | | | | | | |
| Executive [2] | 826,319 | [3] 816,472 | +1.2 | $123,834,171 | [3] $123,961,041 | −0.1 |
| Judicial | 2,117 | 2,172 | −2.5 | 508,922 | 520,414 | −2.2 |
| Legislative | 5,172 | 5,140 | +.6 | 1,202,032 | 1,200,002 | +.2 |
| Military | 330,445 | 331,873 | −.4 | 25,391,702 | 25,122,027 | +1.1 |
| Construction projects: | | | | | | |
| Financed by P. W. A.[4] | 104,134 | 93,703 | +11.1 | 8,186,478 | 6,987,705 | +17.2 |
| Financed by R. F. C.[5] | 3,192 | 3,525 | −9.4 | 491,828 | 496,349 | −.9 |
| Financed by regular Federal appropriations | 173,585 | 156,649 | +10.8 | 17,522,503 | 15,167,424 | +15.5 |
| Federal projects under The Works Program | 188,674 | 154,229 | +22.3 | 9,124,787 | 7,227,913 | +26.2 |
| Projects operated by W. P. A. | 2,581,334 | 2,392,347 | +7.9 | 131,332,016 | [3] 119,513,008 | +9.9 |
| National Youth Administration: | | | | | | |
| Work projects | 158,082 | 154,567 | +2.3 | 2,760,533 | 2,751,797 | +.3 |
| Student Aid | ([6]) | 327,484 | ..... | ([6]) | 2,212,784 | ..... |
| Civilian Conservation Corps | 307,945 | 315,769 | −2.5 | 14,363,254 | 14,575,680 | −1.5 |

[1] Includes data on projects financed wholly or partially from Federal funds.
[2] Includes force-account and supervisory and technical employees shown under other classifications to the extent of 98,664 employees and pay-roll disbursements of $12,304,361 for April and 99,768 employees and pay-roll disbursements of $12,568,799 for March.
[3] Revised.
[4] Data covering P. W. A. projects financed from E. R. A. A. 1935, 1936, and 1937 funds are included. These data are not shown under The Works Program. Includes 81,502 wage earners and $6,093,369 pay roll for April; 70,731 wage earners and $4,980,926 pay roll for March, covering P. W. A. projects financed from E. R. A. A. 1935, 1936, and 1937 funds.
[5] Includes 87 employees and pay-roll disbursements of $7,828 for April and 100 employees and pay-roll disbursements of $9,484 for March on projects financed by the RFC Mortgage Co.
[6] Not available.

# DETAILED REPORTS FOR MARCH 1938

## *Industrial and Business Employment*

A MONTHLY report on employment and pay rolls is published as a separate pamphlet by the Bureau of Labor Statistics. This gives detailed data regarding employment, pay rolls, working hours, and earnings for the current month for industrial and business establishments and for the various forms of public employment. This pamphlet is distributed free upon request. Its principal contents for the month of March, insofar as industrial and business employment is concerned, are reproduced in this section of the Monthly Labor Review.

Monthly figures on employment and pay rolls are available for the following groups: 89 manufacturing industries; 16 nonmanufacturing industries, including private building construction; and class I steam railroads. The reports for the first two of these groups—manufacturing and nonmanufacturing—are based on sample surveys by the Bureau of Labor Statistics, and in virtually all industries the samples are large enough to be entirely representative. The figures on class I steam railroads are compiled by the Interstate Commerce Commission and are presented in the foregoing summary.

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## EMPLOYMENT, PAY ROLLS, HOURS, AND EARNINGS

Indexes of employment and pay rolls as well as average hours worked per week, average hourly earnings, and average weekly earnings for January, February, and March 1938, are presented in table 1. The January and February figures may differ in some instances from those previously published because of revisions necessitated by the inclusion of late reports and other causes.

Average weekly earnings shown in table 1 are computed by dividing the total weekly pay rolls in the reporting establishments by the total number of full- and part-time employees reported. As all reporting establishments do not supply man-hour data, average hours worked per week and average hourly earnings are necessarily based on data supplied by a smaller number of reporting firms. The size and composition of the reporting sample varies slightly from month to month and therefore the average hours per week, average hourly earnings, and average weekly earnings shown in table 1 are not strictly comparable from month to month. The sample, however, is believed to be sufficiently adequate in virtually all instances to indicate the general movements of earnings and hours over the period shown. The changes from the preceding month, expressed as percents, are based on identical lists of firms for the 2 months.

TABLE 1.—*Employment, Pay Rolls, Hours, and Earnings in Manufacturing and Nonmanufacturing Industries, March, February, and January 1938*

TABLE 1.—*Employment, Pay Rolls, Hours, and Earnings in Manufacturing and Nonmanufacturing Industries, March, February, and January 1938*

MANUFACTURING

[Indexes are based on 3-year average 1923–25=100 and are adjusted to 1933 Census of Manufactures. Not comparable to indexes published in reports prior to October 1936]

| Industry | Employment index | | | Pay-roll index | | | Average weekly earnings [1] | | | Average hours worked per week [1] | | | Average hourly earnings [1] | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | March 1938 | February 1938 | January 1938 | March 1938 | February 1938 | January 1938 | March 1938 | February 1938 | January 1938 | March 1938 | February 1938 | January 1938 | March 1938 | February 1938 | January 1938 |
| | | | | | | | | | | | | | *Cents* | *Cents* | *Cents* |
| **All manufacturing industries** | **81.7** | **82.3** | **82.2** | **73.3** | **73.2** | **71.7** | **$22.46** | **$22.30** | **$21.89** | **34.5** | **34.3** | **33.2** | **65.5** | **65.6** | **66.3** |
| **Durable goods** | **72.4** | **73.3** | **75.1** | **63.8** | **63.7** | **63.9** | **24.06** | **23.80** | **23.28** | **33.6** | **33.2** | **32.3** | **72.4** | **72.4** | **72.7** |
| **Nondurable goods** | **91.7** | **92.1** | **89.9** | **85.3** | **85.1** | **81.6** | **20.92** | **20.86** | **20.49** | **35.3** | **35.3** | **34.0** | **59.3** | **59.4** | **60.2** |
| *Durable goods* | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| **Iron and steel and their products, not including machinery** | **78.9** | **80.0** | **81.1** | **62.1** | **61.3** | **59.1** | **22.12** | **21.54** | **20.42** | **29.6** | **28.9** | **27.7** | **75.9** | **76.0** | **75.5** |
| Blast furnaces, steel works, and rolling mills | 87.0 | 88.7 | 90.5 | 65.5 | 64.7 | 61.7 | 22.28 | 21.60 | 20.17 | 27.1 | 26.4 | 24.9 | 82.6 | 82.6 | 81.8 |
| Bolts, nuts, washers, and rivets | 61.7 | 63.3 | 63.2 | 52.7 | 53.0 | 49.1 | 19.34 | 18.94 | 17.62 | 27.3 | 27.0 | 25.3 | 70.7 | 70.2 | 69.7 |
| Cast-iron pipe | 55.6 | 54.7 | 55.5 | 39.0 | 35.2 | 36.0 | 18.80 | 17.24 | 17.37 | 31.9 | 29.5 | 29.3 | 57.9 | 57.3 | 58.5 |
| Cutlery (not including silver and plated cutlery) and edge tools | 75.3 | 77.6 | 77.5 | 63.1 | 63.5 | 62.8 | 20.96 | 20.38 | 20.27 | 35.2 | 34.2 | 33.6 | 61.6 | 61.5 | 62.5 |
| Forgings, iron and steel | 46.5 | 48.4 | 52.3 | 34.4 | 34.3 | 36.3 | 22.59 | 21.58 | 21.22 | 30.7 | 29.2 | 28.6 | 73.8 | 74.2 | 74.7 |
| Hardware | 66.4 | 67.6 | 70.8 | 57.1 | 60.1 | 56.3 | 19.47 | 20.07 | 17.94 | 29.9 | 30.1 | 27.4 | 65.1 | 66.6 | 65.1 |
| Plumbers' supplies | 78.4 | 79.2 | 78.3 | 52.3 | 51.5 | 53.1 | 21.06 | 20.61 | 21.45 | 31.3 | 30.8 | 32.3 | 67.1 | 67.0 | 66.5 |
| Steam- and hot-water heating apparatus and steam fittings | 56.7 | 55.9 | 56.6 | 42.7 | 42.4 | 43.4 | 21.76 | 21.94 | 22.21 | 30.5 | 30.9 | 31.1 | 70.9 | 70.6 | 70.9 |
| Stoves | 76.5 | 73.9 | 63.8 | 60.5 | 56.6 | 43.9 | 23.21 | 22.56 | 20.21 | 34.8 | 34.5 | 31.8 | 67.1 | 66.5 | 65.0 |
| Structural and ornamental metalwork | 59.7 | 61.4 | 63.8 | 54.6 | 56.2 | 58.5 | 25.63 | 25.74 | 25.74 | 35.9 | 35.8 | 35.8 | 71.5 | 72.0 | 72.1 |
| Tin cans and other tinware | 87.0 | 85.5 | 85.7 | 92.3 | 88.6 | 88.1 | 23.54 | 22.89 | 22.93 | 37.8 | 36.6 | 36.7 | 62.7 | 63.1 | 63.2 |
| Tools (not including edge tools, machine tools, files, and saws) | 79.3 | 79.5 | 81.5 | 76.3 | 72.9 | 75.9 | 22.36 | 21.32 | 21.60 | 36.0 | 34.4 | 34.7 | 61.8 | 61.4 | 62.0 |
| Wirework | 120.7 | 123.8 | 132.7 | 105.4 | 101.5 | 107.8 | 21.70 | 20.38 | 20.17 | 32.2 | 30.4 | 30.2 | 67.6 | 67.1 | 66.8 |
| **Machinery, not including transportation equipment** | **96.8** | **99.7** | **104.0** | **88.7** | **91.8** | **95.9** | **25.34** | **25.48** | **25.61** | **34.5** | **34.6** | **34.5** | **73.0** | **73.0** | **73.2** |
| Agricultural implements | 136.9 | 137.6 | 138.4 | 178.3 | 175.9 | 172.1 | 28.99 | 28.46 | 27.73 | 38.8 | 38.2 | 37.1 | 74.9 | 74.6 | 74.8 |
| Cash registers, adding machines, and calculating machines | 126.5 | 127.6 | 126.8 | 124.1 | 123.4 | 128.5 | 29.54 | 29.30 | 30.71 | 36.8 | 36.3 | 37.8 | 80.7 | 81.1 | 81.6 |
| Electrical machinery, apparatus, and supplies | 86.4 | 89.9 | 95.9 | 78.1 | 81.7 | 88.1 | 24.73 | 24.88 | 25.17 | 32.9 | 33.3 | 33.5 | 74.9 | 74.5 | 74.9 |
| Engines, turbines, tractors, and water wheels | 121.3 | 124.5 | 130.4 | 118.7 | 120.0 | 128.2 | 30.04 | 29.59 | 30.15 | 36.3 | 35.7 | 36.3 | 82.9 | 83.4 | 83.2 |
| Foundry and machine-shop products | 85.2 | 87.1 | 90.3 | 75.2 | 77.6 | 79.9 | 24.72 | 24.85 | 24.70 | 34.7 | 34.8 | 34.4 | 71.2 | 71.2 | 71.4 |
| Machine tools | 127.7 | 133.7 | 139.2 | 112.3 | 120.4 | 131.5 | 27.01 | 27.64 | 29.01 | 37.0 | 38.0 | 39.7 | 73.1 | 72.8 | 73.2 |
| Radios and phonographs | 86.0 | 95.4 | 97.1 | 60.7 | 71.6 | 76.2 | 18.78 | 19.99 | 20.81 | 30.7 | 31.7 | 32.7 | 61.6 | 62.8 | 63.8 |

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 1.—*Employment, Pay Rolls, Hours, and Earnings in Manufacturing and Nonmanufacturing Industries, March, February, and January 1938*—Continued

MANUFACTURING—Continued

[Indexes are based on 3-year average 1923–25=100 and are adjusted to 1933 Census of Manufactures. Not comparable to indexes published in reports prior to October 1936]

| Industry | Employment index | | | Pay-roll index | | | Average weekly earnings | | | Average hours worked per week | | | Average hourly earnings | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | March 1938 | February 1938 | January 1938 | March 1938 | February 1938 | January 1938 | March 1938 | February 1938 | January 1938 | March 1938 | February 1938 | January 1938 | March 1938 | February 1938 | January 1938 |
| *Durable goods*—Continued | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| **Machinery, not including transportation equipment**—Continued. | | | | | | | | | | | | | *Cents* | *Cents* | *Cents* |
| Textile machinery and parts | 63.5 | 65.9 | 68.6 | 50.1 | 51.6 | 53.4 | $21.76 | $21.61 | $21.27 | 32.7 | 32.4 | 32.8 | 66.6 | 66.9 | 65.0 |
| Typewriters and parts | 112.8 | 114.1 | 117.7 | 80.6 | 87.6 | 76.8 | 19.58 | 20.50 | 17.41 | 29.6 | 31.2 | 27.1 | 66.0 | 65.6 | 64.1 |
| **Transportation equipment** | **77.8** | **80.6** | **84.3** | **66.0** | **67.0** | **68.6** | **27.06** | **26.86** | **26.23** | **30.6** | **30.4** | **29.7** | **88.6** | **88.6** | **88.7** |
| Aircraft | 780.6 | 776.2 | 771.5 | 700.3 | 698.9 | 674.9 | 28.49 | 28.64 | 27.79 | 40.3 | 40.4 | 39.4 | 71.4 | 71.6 | 71.3 |
| Automobiles | 79.8 | 82.8 | 86.8 | 61.9 | 62.3 | 63.8 | 26.13 | 25.85 | 25.15 | 28.4 | 28.2 | 27.4 | 91.9 | 91.7 | 91.9 |
| Cars, electric- and steam-railroad | 39.1 | 42.2 | 44.5 | 43.7 | 47.9 | 48.9 | 26.78 | 27.25 | 26.41 | 35.5 | 36.1 | 35.4 | 75.4 | 75.6 | 74.6 |
| Locomotives | 43.7 | 47.9 | 52.2 | 32.6 | 37.0 | 37.7 | 29.09 | 29.63 | 28.11 | 37.6 | 38.3 | 36.4 | 77.5 | 77.3 | 77.2 |
| Shipbuilding | 94.6 | 95.2 | 99.2 | 109.3 | 109.5 | 114.2 | 31.22 | 31.15 | 31.21 | 37.1 | 36.2 | 36.4 | 83.2 | 84.3 | 84.2 |
| **Railroad repair shops** | **44.4** | **44.9** | **47.6** | **45.5** | **45.6** | **47.3** | **29.63** | **29.44** | **28.87** | **40.9** | **40.3** | **39.4** | **71.9** | **72.3** | **72.8** |
| Electric railroad | 61.8 | 62.1 | 63.1 | 68.4 | 68.5 | 68.4 | 31.20 | 31.19 | 30.61 | 44.1 | 44.1 | 43.5 | 69.5 | 69.6 | 69.4 |
| Steam railroad | 43.1 | 43.6 | 46.4 | 43.9 | 44.0 | 45.9 | 29.30 | 29.07 | 28.52 | 40.6 | 39.9 | 39.0 | 72.2 | 72.6 | 73.1 |
| **Nonferrous metals and their products** | **87.4** | **87.6** | **88.1** | **74.2** | **73.4** | **73.2** | **22.97** | **22.64** | **22.49** | **34.2** | **33.8** | **33.1** | **67.2** | **67.0** | **67.6** |
| Aluminum manufactures | 100.5 | 101.6 | 103.9 | 100.5 | 97.2 | 96.9 | 24.77 | 23.69 | 23.11 | 35.7 | 34.6 | 33.5 | 69.3 | 68.5 | 69.1 |
| Brass, bronze, and copper products | 86.6 | 87.3 | 89.1 | 71.8 | 70.2 | 71.4 | 23.44 | 22.77 | 22.73 | 31.3 | 30.6 | 30.8 | 74.9 | 74.3 | 73.8 |
| Clocks and watches and time-recording devices | 98.8 | 101.3 | 97.2 | 83.6 | 89.1 | 86.7 | 19.41 | 20.19 | 20.48 | 32.0 | 33.6 | 33.8 | 60.6 | 60.0 | 60.5 |
| Jewelry | 84.8 | 84.1 | 82.2 | 60.4 | 61.4 | 60.5 | 21.85 | 22.26 | 22.52 | 37.0 | 36.9 | 36.3 | 59.5 | 60.3 | 61.9 |
| Lighting equipment | 67.0 | 69.1 | 69.2 | 54.5 | 55.2 | 52.7 | 21.03 | 20.61 | 19.54 | 31.1 | 30.5 | 28.8 | 67.6 | 67.5 | 67.9 |
| Silverware and plated ware | 71.5 | 71.1 | 69.3 | 59.6 | 57.0 | 54.0 | 22.68 | 21.80 | 21.11 | 36.1 | 34.6 | 33.2 | 63.1 | 63.2 | 63.6 |
| Smelting and refining—copper, lead, and zinc | 75.2 | 76.8 | 81.1 | 66.2 | 69.2 | 74.0 | 25.91 | 26.52 | 26.92 | 37.8 | 38.7 | 39.1 | 68.5 | 68.5 | 68.9 |
| Stamped and enameled ware | 110.0 | 105.5 | 105.2 | 101.1 | 92.9 | 88.6 | 22.45 | 21.54 | 20.64 | 35.5 | 34.2 | 31.8 | 63.4 | 63.0 | 64.6 |
| **Lumber and allied products** | **55.8** | **54.2** | **53.7** | **48.7** | **45.3** | **42.5** | **19.35** | **18.69** | **17.63** | **37.3** | **36.5** | **34.6** | **52.7** | **51.5** | **51.6** |
| Furniture | 68.0 | 68.2 | 68.5 | 53.9 | 53.3 | 49.3 | 18.91 | 18.56 | 17.16 | 35.2 | 34.8 | 31.7 | 53.9 | 53.4 | 53.9 |
| Lumber: | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Millwork | 46.1 | 45.9 | 43.9 | 41.7 | 40.0 | 36.5 | 20.56 | 19.89 | 18.98 | 37.8 | 36.9 | 34.1 | 54.3 | 53.8 | 55.6 |
| Sawmills | 42.3 | 40.1 | 39.7 | 37.4 | 33.0 | 31.5 | 19.33 | 18.40 | 17.70 | 38.4 | 37.5 | 36.5 | 51.6 | 49.7 | 49.3 |
| **Stone, clay, and glass products** | **55.5** | **55.0** | **55.1** | **48.1** | **46.6** | **43.6** | **21.95** | **21.47** | **20.03** | **34.1** | **33.1** | **31.2** | **64.4** | **64.9** | **65.0** |
| Brick, tile, and terra cotta | 36.1 | 35.4 | 35.3 | 26.0 | 25.5 | 24.3 | 17.24 | 17.26 | 16.53 | 32.9 | 32.1 | 31.2 | 52.4 | 53.5 | 54.1 |
| Cement | 53.5 | 49.3 | 50.2 | 50.2 | 44.7 | 44.4 | 23.79 | 22.99 | 22.45 | 34.9 | 33.7 | 32.8 | 68.2 | 68.3 | 68.4 |
| Glass | 83.7 | 85.6 | 87.8 | 80.8 | 80.1 | 77.1 | 23.31 | 22.56 | 21.10 | 33.6 | 32.4 | 30.1 | 69.7 | 69.9 | 70.5 |
| Marble, granite, slate, and other products | 35.4 | 34.6 | 31.5 | 30.1 | 28.9 | 23.7 | 25.16 | 24.91 | 22.13 | 37.0 | 36.0 | 32.8 | 69.2 | 69.7 | 67.8 |
| Pottery | 70.7 | 70.2 | 69.6 | 59.8 | 58.6 | 51.0 | 22.31 | 21.94 | 19.27 | 34.8 | 34.4 | 31.8 | 64.5 | 64.6 | 63.8 |

*Nondurable goods*

| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Glass | 83.7 | 85.6 | 87.8 | 80.8 | 89.2 | 93.7 | 25.16 | 24.91 | 22.13 | 37.0 | 36.0 | 32.8 | 65.2 | 64.6 | 63.8 | |
| Marble, granite, slate, and other products | 35.4 | 34.6 | 31.5 | 30.1 | 28.9 | 23.7 | 22.31 | 21.94 | 19.27 | 34.8 | 34.4 | 31.8 | 64.5 | 64.6 | | |
| Pottery | 70.7 | 70.2 | 69.6 | 59.8 | 58.6 | 51.0 | | | | | | | | | | |
| *Nondurable goods* | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| **Textiles and their products** | 89.5 | 89.2 | 84.7 | 74.6 | 74.5 | 65.5 | 16.39 | 16.41 | 15.34 | 32.6 | 32.4 | 30.2 | 50.6 | 51.0 | 51.9 | |
| Fabrics | 81.0 | 81.7 | 80.7 | 68.4 | 69.5 | 65.0 | 15.68 | 15.82 | 15.08 | 32.8 | 32.8 | 30.8 | 48.2 | 48.5 | 49.0 | |
| Carpets and rugs | 72.6 | 72.5 | 66.9 | 57.3 | 54.6 | 45.6 | 18.68 | 17.92 | 16.24 | 29.1 | 27.3 | 24.6 | 64.3 | 65.6 | 65.9 | |
| Cotton goods | 86.5 | 85.8 | 86.6 | 72.7 | 71.2 | 70.3 | 13.16 | 12.99 | 12.73 | 31.8 | 31.4 | 30.2 | 41.2 | 41.3 | 42.0 | |
| Cotton small wares | 80.3 | 80.6 | 78.8 | 77.4 | 75.8 | 67.9 | 17.89 | 17.44 | 15.96 | 37.4 | 36.4 | 33.1 | 48.1 | 48.1 | 48.7 | |
| Dyeing and finishing textiles | 104.9 | 104.9 | 103.6 | 89.0 | 89.6 | 84.0 | 20.40 | 20.63 | 19.57 | 37.2 | 37.3 | 34.3 | 54.6 | 55.1 | 56.6 | |
| Hats, fur-felt | 83.5 | 83.7 | 82.7 | 67.0 | 72.6 | 65.2 | 21.95 | 23.58 | 21.40 | 29.2 | 33.6 | 31.2 | 73.3 | 71.9 | 72.0 | |
| Knit goods | 104.5 | 103.5 | 99.2 | 106.9 | 104.0 | 90.6 | 17.82 | 17.40 | 15.86 | 34.5 | 33.8 | 31.0 | 52.6 | 52.7 | 52.3 | |
| Silk and rayon goods | 60.3 | 59.4 | 57.8 | 47.0 | 45.7 | 40.4 | 15.32 | 14.87 | 13.55 | 34.3 | 33.3 | 29.5 | 44.5 | 44.2 | 45.5 | |
| Woolen and worsted goods | 52.0 | 59.8 | 59.1 | 39.4 | 50.3 | 48.9 | 17.41 | 19.32 | 18.97 | 29.8 | 33.0 | 32.0 | 58.3 | 58.6 | 59.4 | |
| Wearing apparel | 106.9 | 104.2 | 91.7 | 83.8 | 81.4 | 63.8 | 18.12 | 17.94 | 16.09 | 32.3 | 31.8 | 28.9 | 54.9 | 55.7 | 55.3 | |
| Clothing, men's | 97.5 | 95.9 | 83.5 | 75.7 | 74.1 | 58.4 | 18.24 | 18.19 | 16.44 | 30.0 | 29.4 | 26.7 | 59.6 | 60.6 | 61.8 | |
| Clothing, women's | 146.1 | 144.0 | 128.3 | 109.6 | 108.3 | 82.8 | 20.86 | 20.72 | 17.87 | 33.4 | 33.2 | 29.8 | 57.5 | 58.6 | 56.0 | |
| Corsets and allied garments | 87.2 | 86.6 | 84.6 | 88.7 | 84.0 | 74.5 | 16.95 | 15.99 | 14.64 | 36.7 | 35.6 | 31.7 | 46.0 | 45.2 | 46.5 | |
| Men's furnishings | 121.1 | 115.2 | 97.6 | 93.8 | 88.3 | 66.5 | 13.44 | 13.41 | 12.05 | 34.6 | 32.1 | 29.2 | 35.9 | 37.6 | 37.8 | |
| Millinery | 59.2 | 55.8 | 50.1 | 50.8 | 43.6 | 34.4 | 25.46 | 22.53 | 20.02 | | | | | | | |
| Shirts and collars | 110.3 | 103.3 | 89.0 | 90.7 | 84.0 | 70.5 | 12.23 | 12.14 | 11.82 | 32.0 | 32.0 | 30.4 | 38.9 | 39.7 | 41.3 | |
| **Leather and its manufactures** | **90.1** | **89.4** | **85.8** | **72.7** | **73.2** | **65.6** | **18.90** | **19.09** | **17.96** | **35.4** | **36.0** | **33.4** | **52.3** | **52.6** | **53.6** | |
| Boots and shoes | 94.9 | 93.7 | 89.3 | 71.9 | 71.9 | 63.1 | 18.04 | 18.21 | 16.94 | 35.2 | 35.9 | 32.9 | 50.0 | 50.3 | 51.4 | |
| Leather | 76.4 | 77.6 | 76.6 | 78.2 | 80.2 | 76.9 | 22.91 | 23.11 | 22.43 | 36.1 | 36.6 | 35.4 | 63.8 | 63.4 | 63.8 | |
| **Food and kindred products** | **100.4** | **101.7** | **102.9** | **103.5** | **104.3** | **106.5** | **24.80** | **24.74** | **25.24** | **40.1** | **40.7** | **40.4** | **62.1** | **60.9** | **61.8** | |
| Baking | 129.8 | 130.1 | 129.9 | 126.5 | 126.1 | 125.2 | 25.48 | 25.30 | 25.26 | 42.1 | 43.6 | 41.6 | 60.9 | 58.4 | 61.3 | |
| Beverages | 194.3 | 189.9 | 186.2 | 217.3 | 209.3 | 199.8 | 32.63 | 32.26 | 31.38 | 38.9 | 38.6 | 37.7 | 84.5 | 84.1 | 84.0 | |
| Butter | 81.5 | 80.7 | 80.5 | 66.1 | 66.4 | 65.7 | 22.27 | 22.83 | 22.54 | | | | | | | |
| Canning and preserving | 75.7 | 79.4 | 82.1 | 74.5 | 78.0 | 79.6 | 16.32 | 16.30 | 16.11 | 34.5 | 34.4 | 34.5 | 48.9 | 48.8 | 48.0 | |
| Confectionery | 74.5 | 75.8 | 76.4 | 72.8 | 74.1 | 73.8 | 17.80 | 17.67 | 17.58 | 37.1 | 37.0 | 36.8 | 48.0 | 47.7 | 48.0 | |
| Flour | 73.2 | 73.6 | 73.7 | 72.3 | 73.1 | 73.3 | 25.67 | 25.87 | 25.86 | 42.9 | 43.1 | 43.4 | 58.9 | 58.9 | 58.6 | |
| Ice cream | 63.4 | 62.0 | 61.7 | 60.9 | 58.5 | 58.6 | 29.20 | 28.89 | 29.39 | 46.3 | 45.5 | 45.4 | 61.7 | 61.9 | 62.7 | |
| Slaughtering and meat packing | 84.3 | 88.0 | 92.8 | 92.0 | 95.9 | 108.3 | 27.26 | 27.32 | 29.30 | 39.4 | 39.7 | 42.7 | 69.3 | 68.9 | 68.8 | |
| Sugar, beet | 34.0 | 30.9 | 33.3 | 42.4 | 41.2 | 40.1 | 29.36 | 31.38 | 28.38 | 41.3 | 42.0 | 38.9 | 74.4 | 75.6 | 75.9 | |
| Sugar refining, cane | 68.4 | 71.3 | 65.6 | 60.2 | 64.1 | 58.9 | 22.66 | 23.75 | 23.72 | 36.7 | 38.4 | 38.1 | 61.9 | 61.9 | 59.6 | |
| **Tobacco manufactures** | **59.3** | **58.8** | **51.9** | **50.6** | **48.8** | **44.6** | **15.89** | **15.32** | **15.85** | **34.1** | **33.1** | **33.3** | **46.4** | **46.0** | **47.6** | |
| Chewing and smoking tobacco and snuff | 56.5 | 58.8 | 57.2 | 65.3 | 68.2 | 66.6 | 17.31 | 17.27 | 17.31 | 34.5 | 35.4 | 34.7 | 50.5 | 49.1 | 50.3 | |
| Cigars and cigarettes | 59.6 | 58.7 | 51.1 | 48.8 | 46.4 | 41.9 | 15.60 | 14.89 | 15.48 | 34.1 | 32.8 | 33.1 | 45.9 | 45.5 | 47.2 | |
| **Paper and printing** | **100.3** | **101.1** | **101.0** | **96.6** | **96.4** | **95.4** | **27.71** | **27.40** | **26.90** | **37.5** | **37.4** | **36.7** | **76.4** | **75.9** | **76.3** | |
| Boxes, paper | 90.8 | 89.8 | 89.3 | 89.4 | 87.6 | 83.1 | 20.37 | 20.16 | 19.18 | 37.5 | 36.9 | 35.2 | 54.7 | 55.1 | 54.9 | |
| Paper and pulp | 108.1 | 108.7 | 108.1 | 103.4 | 102.9 | 97.7 | 23.73 | 23.51 | 22.36 | 38.2 | 37.7 | 35.7 | 62.2 | 62.4 | 62.7 | |
| Printing and publishing: | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Book and job | 92.8 | 95.2 | 95.8 | 87.6 | 89.1 | 91.0 | 29.93 | 29.59 | 29.95 | 37.8 | 38.0 | 38.4 | 80.3 | 78.5 | 79.3 | |
| Newspapers and periodicals | 103.4 | 103.2 | 103.0 | 101.8 | 100.6 | 100.7 | 36.90 | 36.63 | 36.76 | 36.7 | 36.6 | 36.7 | 96.8 | 96.6 | 97.0 | |
| **Chemicals and allied products, and petroleum refining** | **113.1** | **113.1** | **112.7** | **119.7** | **119.2** | **117.5** | **27.40** | **27.51** | **27.20** | **37.5** | **37.3** | **36.7** | **73.7** | **74.2** | **75.0** | |
| Other than petroleum refining | 111.9 | 111.8 | 111.0 | 114.6 | 113.6 | 112.2 | 24.35 | 24.17 | 24.19 | 38.0 | 37.6 | 37.2 | 65.4 | 65.9 | 66.7 | |
| Chemicals | 110.5 | 115.2 | 118.1 | 117.6 | 122.6 | 124.3 | 29.47 | 29.45 | 29.18 | 37.3 | 37.3 | 36.8 | 79.0 | 79.0 | 79.3 | |
| Cottonseed—oil, cake, and meal | 87.1 | 100.2 | 104.4 | 77.5 | 96.2 | 96.8 | 12.67 | 12.89 | 13.18 | 50.1 | 53.6 | 53.2 | 25.4 | 24.1 | 25.0 | |
| Druggists' preparations | 104.7 | 106.0 | 105.9 | 115.3 | 115.9 | 118.4 | 24.01 | 23.79 | 24.37 | 38.0 | 38.7 | 38.9 | 59.9 | 59.1 | 60.7 | |
| Explosives | 87.2 | 87.4 | 90.2 | 90.9 | 92.4 | 82.3 | 29.13 | 36.25 | 26.11 | 36.2 | 37.5 | 33.0 | 80.5 | 80.7 | 79.0 | |
| Fertilizers | 116.7 | 94.8 | 83.0 | 110.7 | 88.2 | 79.8 | 15.70 | 15.62 | 15.99 | 41.3 | 38.5 | 37.6 | 38.2 | 40.6 | 42.5 | |
| Paints and varnishes | 117.3 | 116.0 | 116.3 | 113.3 | 110.5 | 106.4 | 26.70 | 26.26 | 25.16 | 38.3 | 37.6 | 35.9 | 69.7 | 69.7 | 70.1 | |

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 1.—*Employment, Pay Rolls, Hours, and Earnings in Manufacturing and Nonmanufacturing Industries, March, February, and January 1938*—Continued

MANUFACTURING—Continued

[Indexes are based on 3-year average 1923–25=100 and are adjusted to 1933 Census of Manufactures. Not comparable to indexes published in reports prior to October 1936]

| Industry | Employment index | | | Pay-roll index | | | Average weekly earnings [1] | | | Average hours worked per week [1] | | | Average hourly earnings | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | March 1938 | February 1938 | January 1938 | March 1938 | February 1938 | January 1938 | March 1938 | February 1938 | January 1938 | March 1938 | February 1938 | January 1938 | March 1938 | February 1938 | January 1938 |
| *Nondurable goods*—Continued | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| **Chemicals and allied products, and petroleum refining**—Continued. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Other than petroleum refining—Continued. | | | | | | | | | | | | | *Cents* | *Cents* | *Cents* |
| Rayon and allied products | 334.6 | 329.2 | 315.2 | 301.3 | 283.4 | 275.5 | $22.22 | $21.26 | $21.58 | 34.2 | 32.6 | 32.9 | 64.9 | 65.3 | 65.7 |
| Soap | 96.0 | 96.3 | 94.0 | 111.8 | 111.2 | 109.2 | 28.65 | 28.58 | 28.65 | 39.0 | 38.6 | 38.4 | 74.4 | 74.3 | 74.8 |
| Petroleum refining | 117.7 | 118.2 | 119.3 | 136.0 | 137.1 | 134.7 | 34.88 | 35.23 | 34.28 | 36.2 | 36.4 | 35.3 | 97.0 | 97.6 | 97.8 |
| **Rubber products** | **72.8** | **74.4** | **78.4** | **60.8** | **59.2** | **66.1** | **21.83** | **21.07** | **22.42** | **29.7** | **28.3** | **29.1** | **76.1** | **77.3** | **78.9** |
| Rubber boots and shoes | 54.7 | 55.8 | 59.2 | 40.3 | 39.8 | 44.3 | 18.47 | 17.86 | 18.76 | 30.6 | 29.5 | 30.7 | 60.3 | 60.5 | 61.1 |
| Rubber goods, other than boots, shoes, tires, and inner tubes | 107.9 | 108.8 | 108.5 | 98.3 | 97.1 | 94.8 | 20.88 | 20.43 | 20.00 | 34.8 | 34.1 | 32.8 | 59.6 | 60.1 | 61.1 |
| Rubber tires and inner tubes | 63.4 | 65.5 | 71.5 | 52.7 | 50.6 | 61.4 | 23.71 | 22.53 | 25.02 | 25.5 | 23.8 | 26.2 | 93.0 | 94.6 | 95.7 |

NONMANUFACTURING

[Indexes are based on 12-month average 1929=100]

| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Coal mining: | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Anthracite [2] | 59.3 | 60.0 | 59.6 | 47.3 | 46.1 | 46.5 | $26.01 | $24.86 | $25.27 | 28.0 | 26.5 | 27.0 | 92.2 | 93.1 | 92.3 |
| Bituminous [2] | 93.1 | 95.4 | 96.8 | 68.5 | 74.0 | 70.2 | 19.57 | 20.59 | 19.26 | 22.4 | 23.7 | 21.6 | 86.8 | 87.1 | 87.1 |
| Metalliferous mining | 61.9 | 63.4 | 67.4 | 56.2 | 55.9 | 58.9 | 28.42 | 27.48 | 27.24 | 42.2 | 40.9 | 40.6 | 67.3 | 67.3 | 67.4 |
| Quarrying and nonmetallic mining | 38.8 | 37.8 | 38.2 | 30.2 | 28.6 | 27.7 | 19.80 | 19.29 | 18.56 | 36.5 | 35.0 | 33.3 | 54.0 | 55.0 | 55.6 |
| Crude-petroleum producing | 73.6 | 74.2 | 75.3 | 68.0 | 69.6 | 68.2 | 34.32 | 34.88 | 33.80 | 40.2 | 40.1 | 39.5 | 84.0 | 85.4 | 84.3 |
| Public utilities: | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Telephone and telegraph [3] | 74.8 | 75.7 | 77.8 | 92.3 | 89.5 | 93.7 | 31.65 | 30.19 | 30.76 | 39.0 | 37.9 | 39.5 | 85.7 | 84.4 | 82.6 |
| Electric light and power and manufactured gas [3] | 92.2 | 92.9 | 94.0 | 98.6 | 98.5 | 98.9 | 33.79 | 33.60 | 33.47 | 40.3 | 40.0 | 39.3 | 84.1 | 84.4 | 85.5 |
| Electric-railroad and motorbus operation and maintenance [3] | 70.8 | 71.1 | 72.2 | 69.9 | 70.2 | 70.6 | 32.29 | 32.08 | 31.98 | 45.3 | 45.4 | 45.0 | 70.5 | 69.9 | 70.0 |

Trade:

| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Trade: | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Wholesale [2] | 89.1 | 90.4 | 91.0 | 74.7 | 75.3 | 75.4 | 29.09 | 29.08 | 28.96 | 42.4 | 42.2 | 42.1 | 68.3 | 68.6 | 68.6 |
| Retail [3] | 83.0 | 82.4 | 84.1 | 68.6 | 68.4 | 70.1 | 21.46 | 21.45 | 21.43 | 42.8 | 42.9 | 43.1 | 54.5 | 54.2 | 54.5 |
| General merchandising [3] | 90.5 | 88.8 | 91.5 | 82.2 | 81.5 | 84.6 | 18.11 | 18.16 | 18.37 | 39.1 | 39.3 | 39.9 | 48.7 | 48.6 | 48.9 |
| Other than general merchandising [3] | 81.0 | 80.7 | 82.1 | 65.8 | 65.7 | 67.1 | 24.13 | 24.07 | 23.92 | 43.8 | 43.9 | 44.0 | 56.2 | 55.8 | 56.1 |
| Hotels (year-round) [2 3 5] | 93.4 | 94.4 | 94.3 | 81.0 | 83.5 | 81.5 | 14.88 | 15.16 | 14.90 | 47.4 | 47.2 | 46.6 | 31.0 | 31.7 | 31.1 |
| Laundries [2] | 94.8 | 95.7 | 96.7 | 78.5 | 79.1 | 80.1 | 17.00 | 16.96 | 17.04 | 41.9 | 41.8 | 41.8 | 40.8 | 40.8 | 41.0 |
| Dyeing and cleaning [2] | 98.2 | 95.4 | 96.7 | 67.8 | 65.0 | 65.3 | 19.27 | 18.98 | 18.66 | 40.3 | 39.4 | 39.0 | 48.0 | 49.3 | 49.2 |
| Brokerage [3 6] | −2.7 | −2.3 | −1.9 | −4.0 | −2.3 | −3.4 | 35.15 | 36.11 | 36.23 | (4) | (4) | (4) | (4) | (4) | (4) |
| Insurance [3 6] | −.2 | −.1 | +.9 | −.3 | −1.9 | +.8 | 36.12 | 36.39 | 37.17 | (4) | (4) | (4) | (4) | (4) | (4) |
| Building construction [6] | −.9 | −4.8 | −14.2 | +.2 | −4.7 | −15.2 | 28.44 | 28.56 | 28.36 | 30.7 | 30.4 | 30.5 | 92.1 | 93.8 | 92.5 |

[1] Average weekly earnings are computed from figures furnished by all reporting establishments. Average hours and average hourly earnings are computed from data supplied by a smaller number of establishments as all reporting firms do not furnish man-hours. The figures are not strictly comparable from month to month because of changes in the size and composition of the reporting sample.

[2] Indexes adjusted to 1935 census. Comparable series back to January 1929 presented in January 1938 issue of this publication.

[3] Average weekly earnings, hourly earnings, and hours not strictly comparable with figures published in pamphlets prior to January 1938 as they now exclude corporation officers, executives, and other employees whose duties are mainly supervisory.

[4] Not available.

[5] Cash payments only; the additional value of board, room, and tips cannot be computed.

[6] Indexes of employment and pay rolls not available; percentage changes from preceding month substituted.

## INDEXES OF EMPLOYMENT AND PAY ROLLS

Indexes of employment and pay rolls are given in tables 2 and 3 for all manufacturing industries combined, for the durable- and nondurable-goods groups of manufacturing industries, and for 13 nonmanufacturing industries, including 2 subgroups under retail trade, by months, from January 1937 to March 1938, inclusive. The accompanying chart indicates the trend of factory employment and pay rolls from January 1919 to March 1938.

The indexes of factory employment and pay rolls are computed from returns supplied by representative establishments in 89 manufacturing industries and cover wage earners only. The base used in computing these indexes is the 3-year average 1923–25 as 100. In March 1938 reports were received from 25,571 manufacturing establishments employing 3,987,890 workers, whose weekly earnings were $89,578,553. The employment reports received from these establishments cover more than 55 percent of the total wage earners in all manufacturing industries of the country and more than 65 percent of the wage earners in the 89 industries included in the monthly survey of the Bureau of Labor Statistics.

The indexes for the nonmanufacturing industries are based on the 12-month average for 1929 as 100. Figures for mining, laundries, dyeing and cleaning, and building construction cover wage earners only, but the figures for public utilities, trade, hotels, brokerage, and insurance relate to all employees, except corporation officers, executives, and other employees whose duties are mainly supervisory. For crude-petroleum producing they cover wage earners and clerical field force.

Data for both manufacturing and nonmanufacturing industries are based on reports of the number of employees and amount of pay rolls for the pay period ending nearest the 15th of the month.

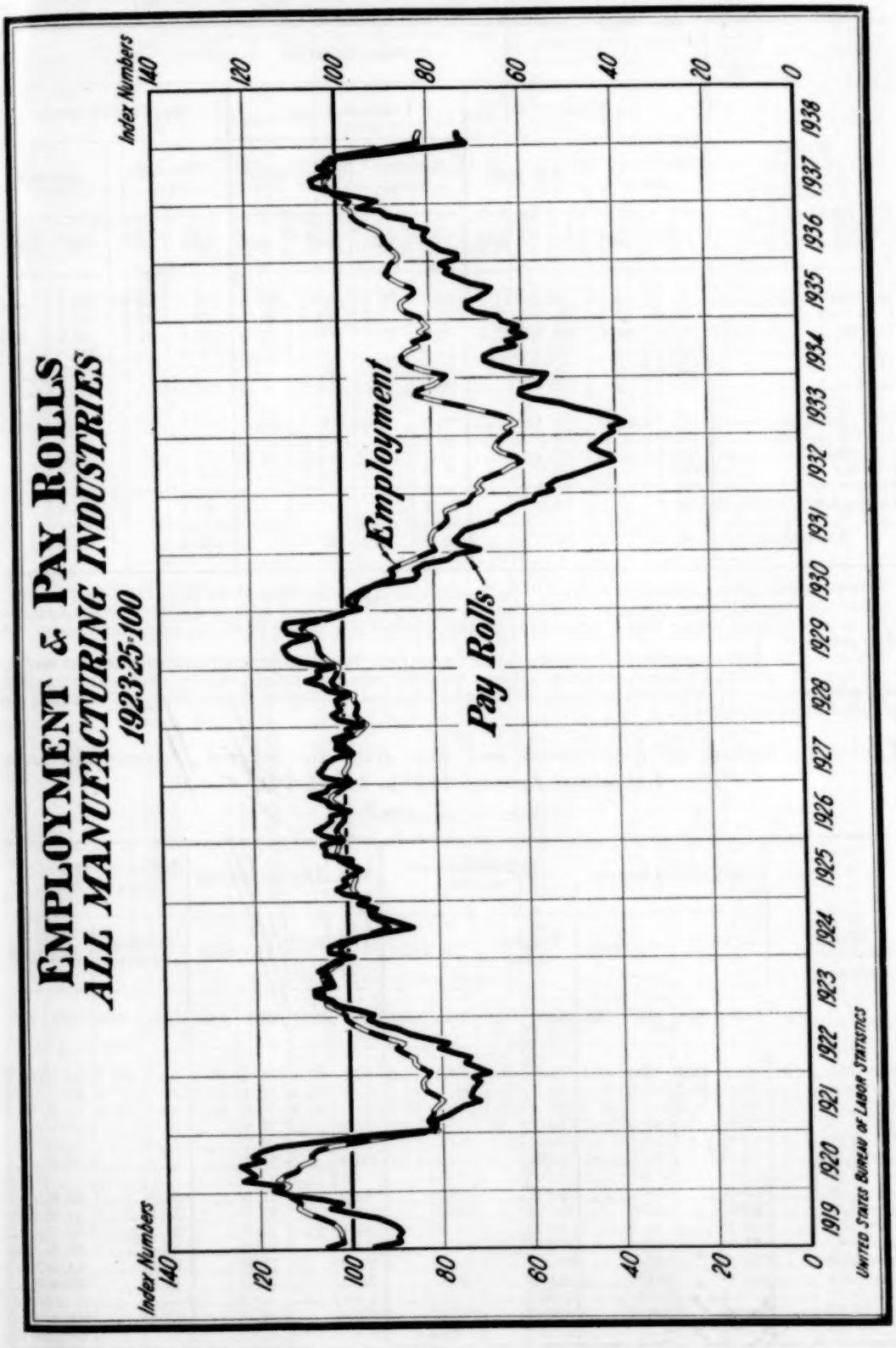
EMPLOYMENT & PAY ROLLS
ALL MANUFACTURING INDUSTRIES
1923-25=100
Index Numbers
140
120
100
80
60
40
20
0
Employment
Pay Rolls
1919 1920 1921 1922 1923 1924 1925 1926 1927 1928 1929 1930 1931 1932 1933 1934 1935 1936 1937 1938
UNITED STATES BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS

**TABLE 2.—*Indexes of Employment and Pay Rolls in All Manufacturing Industries Combined and in the Durable- and Nondurable-Goods Groups* [1]**

[Adjusted to 1933 Census of Manufactures—3-year average 1923-25=100]

| Month | Manufacturing | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Total | | | | Durable goods [2] | | | | Nondurable goods [3] | | | |
| | Employment | | Pay rolls | | Employment | | Pay rolls | | Employment | | Pay rolls | |
| | 1937 | 1938 | 1937 | 1938 | 1937 | 1938 | 1937 | 1938 | 1937 | 1938 | 1937 | 1938 |
| January | 96.5 | 82.2 | 90.7 | 71.7 | 90.4 | 75.1 | 86.6 | 63.9 | 103.0 | 89.9 | 96.0 | 81.6 |
| February | 99.0 | 82.3 | 95.8 | 73.2 | 93.2 | 73.3 | 92.5 | 63.7 | 105.2 | 92.1 | 99.9 | 85.1 |
| March | 101.1 | 81.7 | 101.1 | 73.3 | 96.4 | 72.4 | 100.0 | 63.8 | 106.1 | 91.7 | 102.6 | 85.3 |
| April | 102.1 | ..... | 104.9 | ..... | 98.6 | ..... | 106.4 | ..... | 105.9 | ..... | 102.9 | ..... |
| May | 102.3 | ..... | 105.2 | ..... | 99.9 | ..... | 107.5 | ..... | 104.8 | ..... | 102.3 | ..... |
| June | 101.1 | ..... | 102.9 | ..... | 98.8 | ..... | 104.6 | ..... | 103.5 | ..... | 100.8 | ..... |
| July | 101.4 | ..... | 100.4 | ..... | 98.9 | ..... | 100.7 | ..... | 104.1 | ..... | 100.0 | ..... |
| August | 102.3 | ..... | 103.8 | ..... | 98.1 | ..... | 104.0 | ..... | 106.9 | ..... | 103.5 | ..... |
| September | 102.1 | ..... | 100.1 | ..... | 97.3 | ..... | 99.4 | ..... | 107.3 | ..... | 100.9 | ..... |
| October | 100.5 | ..... | 100.1 | ..... | 97.6 | ..... | 101.7 | ..... | 103.6 | ..... | 98.2 | ..... |
| November | 94.7 | ..... | 89.5 | ..... | 92.4 | ..... | 89.9 | ..... | 97.3 | ..... | 89.0 | ..... |
| December | 88.6 | ..... | 80.9 | ..... | 84.3 | ..... | 77.0 | ..... | 93.3 | ..... | 85.8 | ..... |
| Average | 99.3 | ..... | 98.0 | ..... | 95.5 | ..... | 97.5 | ..... | 103.4 | ..... | 98.5 | ..... |

[1] Comparable indexes for earlier years will be found in the April 1937 issue of the Monthly Labor Review.
[2] Includes the following groups of manufacturing industries: Iron and steel; machinery; transportation equipment; railroad repair shops; nonferrous metals; lumber and allied products; and stone, clay, and glass products.
[3] Includes the following groups of manufacturing industries: Textiles and their products, leather and its manufactures, food and kindred products, tobacco manufactures, paper and printing, chemicals and allied products, products of petroleum and coal, rubber products, and a number of miscellaneous industries not included in other groups.

**TABLE 3.—*Indexes of Employment and Pay Rolls in Selected Nonmanufacturing Industries, January 1937 to March 1938* [1]**

[12-month average 1929=100]

| Month | Anthracite mining | | | | Bituminous-coal mining | | | | Metalliferous mining | | | | Quarrying and nonmetallic mining | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Employment | | Pay rolls | | Employment | | Pay rolls | | Employment | | Pay rolls | | Employment | | Pay rolls | |
| | 1937 | 1938 | 1937 | 1938 | 1937 | 1938 | 1937 | 1938 | 1937 | 1938 | 1937 | 1938 | 1937 | 1938 | 1937 | 1938 |
| January | 65.2 | 59.6 | 46.4 | 46.5 | 104.5 | 96.8 | 93.6 | 70.2 | 66.8 | 67.4 | 58.4 | 58.9 | 45.7 | [2] 38.2 | 34.6 | [2] 27.7 |
| February | 63.6 | 60.0 | 44.6 | 46.1 | 104.7 | 95.4 | 96.4 | 74.0 | 69.6 | 63.4 | 63.4 | 55.9 | 46.7 | [2] 37.8 | 37.8 | [2] 28.6 |
| March | 59.0 | 59.3 | 41.1 | 47.3 | 106.1 | 93.1 | 103.5 | 68.5 | 73.1 | 61.9 | 70.6 | 56.2 | 49.1 | 38.8 | 41.3 | 30.2 |
| April | 65.1 | ..... | 69.4 | ..... | 89.7 | ..... | 63.6 | ..... | 76.2 | ..... | 76.9 | ..... | 53.1 | ..... | 48.1 | ..... |
| May | 61.5 | ..... | 48.2 | ..... | 96.1 | ..... | 79.4 | ..... | 78.5 | ..... | 79.8 | ..... | 54.9 | ..... | 51.4 | ..... |
| June | 61.6 | ..... | 55.3 | ..... | 96.2 | ..... | 83.3 | ..... | 79.5 | ..... | 77.7 | ..... | 55.4 | ..... | 52.6 | ..... |
| July | 54.3 | ..... | 38.2 | ..... | 93.7 | ..... | 77.7 | ..... | 82.0 | ..... | 77.8 | ..... | 55.5 | ..... | 50.8 | ..... |
| August | 49.7 | ..... | 29.6 | ..... | 97.4 | ..... | 86.3 | ..... | 83.4 | ..... | 83.0 | ..... | 54.9 | ..... | 53.2 | ..... |
| September | 58.1 | ..... | 34.2 | ..... | 99.4 | ..... | 90.9 | ..... | 84.1 | ..... | 82.2 | ..... | 54.7 | ..... | 50.1 | ..... |
| October | 61.5 | ..... | 55.4 | ..... | 102.4 | ..... | 100.7 | ..... | 82.9 | ..... | 81.7 | ..... | 53.3 | ..... | 49.3 | ..... |
| November | 60.9 | ..... | 49.0 | ..... | 101.4 | ..... | 91.1 | ..... | 75.4 | ..... | 71.6 | ..... | 49.9 | ..... | 41.7 | ..... |
| December | 61.4 | ..... | 51.3 | ..... | 99.4 | ..... | 95.1 | ..... | 70.4 | ..... | 65.1 | ..... | 43.9 | ..... | 33.4 | ..... |
| Average | 60.2 | ..... | 46.9 | ..... | 99.3 | ..... | 88.5 | ..... | 76.8 | ..... | 74.0 | ..... | 51.4 | ..... | 45.4 | ..... |

[1] Comparable indexes for earlier years for all of these industries, except anthracite and bituminous-coal mining, year-round hotels, laundries, and dyeing and cleaning, will be found in the February 1935 and subsequent issues of the Monthly Labor Review. Indexes for anthracite and bituminous-coal mining, year-round hotels, laundries, and dyeing and cleaning from January 1929 forward have been adjusted to the 1935 census and are presented in the January 1938 issue of the pamphlet on Employment and Pay Rolls.
[2] Revised.

TABLE 3.—*Indexes of Employment and Pay Rolls in Selected Nonmanufacturing Industries, January 1937 to March 1938*—Continued

| Month | Crude-petroleum producing | | | | Telephone and telegraph | | | | Electric light and power, and manufactured gas | | | | Electric-railroad and motorbus operation and maintenance [3] | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Employment | | Pay rolls | | Employment | | Pay rolls | | Employment | | Pay rolls | | Employment | | Pay rolls | |
| | 1937 | 1938 | 1937 | 1938 | 1937 | 1938 | 1937 | 1938 | 1937 | 1938 | 1937 | 1938 | 1937 | 1938 | 1937 | 1938 |
| January | 72.7 | 75.3 | 61.2 | 68.2 | 74.4 | 77.8 | 83.6 | 93.7 | 92.1 | 94.0 | 92.3 | 98.9 | 72.5 | 72.2 | 68.0 | [2] 70.6 |
| February | 73.5 | 74.6 | 64.1 | 69.4 | 74.8 | 75.7 | 82.2 | [2] 89.5 | 92.2 | 92.9 | 93.6 | 98.5 | 72.5 | 71.1 | 68.7 | [2] 70.2 |
| March | 74.2 | 73.6 | 63.9 | 68.0 | 75.4 | 74.8 | 87.2 | 92.3 | 92.4 | 92.2 | 94.8 | 98.6 | 72.6 | 70.8 | 69.2 | 69.9 |
| April | 75.8 | ----- | 67.7 | ----- | 76.6 | ----- | 86.3 | ----- | 93.1 | ----- | 95.5 | ----- | 72.9 | ----- | 69.4 | ----- |
| May | 76.7 | ----- | 68.2 | ----- | 77.7 | ----- | 89.5 | ----- | 94.6 | ----- | 97.9 | ----- | 73.3 | ----- | 70.1 | ----- |
| June | 78.5 | ----- | 70.4 | ----- | 78.5 | ----- | 88.6 | ----- | 96.3 | ----- | 100.4 | ----- | 73.3 | ----- | 71.1 | ----- |
| July | 78.5 | ----- | 70.5 | ----- | 79.7 | ----- | 92.1 | ----- | 97.5 | ----- | 102.2 | ----- | 73.4 | ----- | 70.8 | ----- |
| August | 79.3 | ----- | 70.8 | ----- | 79.8 | ----- | 92.1 | ----- | 98.3 | ----- | 102.6 | ----- | 73.4 | ----- | 73.1 | ----- |
| September | 78.2 | ----- | 71.2 | ----- | 79.8 | ----- | 92.3 | ----- | 98.6 | ----- | 104.0 | ----- | 73.7 | ----- | 71.6 | ----- |
| October | 77.5 | ----- | 69.9 | ----- | 79.6 | ----- | 94.9 | ----- | 98.5 | ----- | 105.3 | ----- | 73.4 | ----- | 71.4 | ----- |
| November | 77.2 | ----- | 70.2 | ----- | 78.9 | ----- | 91.4 | ----- | 97.3 | ----- | 103.8 | ----- | 73.2 | ----- | 71.8 | ----- |
| December | 76.5 | ----- | 69.8 | ----- | 78.0 | ----- | 94.7 | ----- | 96.1 | ----- | 102.4 | ----- | 72.8 | ----- | 71.9 | ----- |
| Average | 76.5 | ----- | 68.2 | ----- | 77.8 | ----- | 89.6 | ----- | 95.6 | ----- | 99.6 | ----- | 73.1 | ----- | 70.6 | ----- |

| Month | Wholesale trade | | | | Total retail trade | | | | Retail trade—general merchandising | | | | Retail trade—other than general merchandising | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Employment | | Pay rolls | | Employment | | Pay rolls | | Employment | | Pay rolls | | Employment | | Pay rolls | |
| | 1937 | 1938 | 1937 | 1938 | 1937 | 1938 | 1937 | 1938 | 1937 | 1938 | 1937 | 1938 | 1937 | 1938 | 1937 | 1938 |
| January | 90.7 | 91.0 | 72.6 | 75.4 | 85.4 | 84.1 | 68.0 | 70.1 | 95.1 | 91.5 | 83.8 | 84.6 | 82.9 | 82.1 | 64.7 | 67.1 |
| February | 92.0 | 90.4 | 74.1 | 75.3 | 85.2 | [2] 82.4 | 67.9 | [2] 68.4 | 93.9 | [2] 88.8 | 82.9 | 81.5 | 82.9 | 80.7 | 64.8 | [2] 65.7 |
| March | 92.1 | 89.1 | 75.0 | 74.7 | 88.5 | 83.0 | 70.5 | 68.6 | 100.3 | 90.5 | 87.6 | 82.2 | 85.4 | 81.0 | 67.0 | 65.8 |
| April | 91.9 | ----- | 75.4 | ----- | 88.8 | ----- | 71.9 | ----- | 99.6 | ----- | 89.1 | ----- | 86.0 | ----- | 68.3 | ----- |
| May | 90.8 | ----- | 76.1 | ----- | 89.9 | ----- | 73.5 | ----- | 102.1 | ----- | 91.5 | ----- | 86.7 | ----- | 69.8 | ----- |
| June | 90.3 | ----- | 76.3 | ----- | 90.5 | ----- | 74.4 | ----- | 102.9 | ----- | 92.5 | ----- | 87.2 | ----- | 70.6 | ----- |
| July | 90.6 | ----- | 76.9 | ----- | 87.6 | ----- | 72.8 | ----- | 95.9 | ----- | 87.3 | ----- | 85.4 | ----- | 69.8 | ----- |
| August | 91.8 | ----- | 79.0 | ----- | 86.2 | ----- | 72.3 | ----- | 93.8 | ----- | 85.7 | ----- | 84.2 | ----- | 69.5 | ----- |
| September | 93.0 | ----- | 78.3 | ----- | 90.7 | ----- | 74.4 | ----- | 103.7 | ----- | 92.4 | ----- | 87.3 | ----- | 70.7 | ----- |
| October | 94.0 | ----- | 79.3 | ----- | 92.1 | ----- | 75.9 | ----- | 108.1 | ----- | 96.2 | ----- | 87.9 | ----- | 71.7 | ----- |
| November | 93.5 | ----- | 78.3 | ----- | 91.7 | ----- | 75.3 | ----- | 109.8 | ----- | 97.1 | ----- | 86.9 | ----- | 70.8 | ----- |
| December | 93.3 | ----- | 77.8 | ----- | 100.4 | ----- | 80.6 | ----- | 145.9 | ----- | 123.3 | ----- | 88.5 | ----- | 71.8 | ----- |
| Average | 92.0 | ----- | 76.6 | ----- | 89.8 | ----- | 73.1 | ----- | 104.3 | ----- | 92.5 | ----- | 85.9 | ----- | 69.1 | ----- |

| Month | Year-round hotels | | | | Laundries | | | | Dyeing and cleaning | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Employment | | Pay rolls | | Employment | | Pay rolls | | Employment | | Pay rolls | |
| | 1937 | 1938 | 1937 | 1938 | 1937 | 1938 | 1937 | 1938 | 1937 | 1938 | 1937 | 1938 |
| January | 92.9 | 94.3 | 76.2 | 81.5 | 98.3 | 96.7 | 78.2 | 80.1 | 98.8 | 96.7 | 64.7 | 65.3 |
| February | 93.9 | 94.4 | 78.5 | 83.5 | 98.4 | 95.7 | 78.1 | 79.1 | 98.0 | 95.4 | 63.6 | 65.0 |
| March | 94.4 | 93.4 | 78.7 | 81.0 | 98.5 | 94.8 | 79.3 | 78.5 | 104.3 | 98.2 | 71.8 | 67.8 |
| April | 96.1 | ----- | 80.7 | ----- | 98.3 | ----- | 80.4 | ----- | 109.2 | ----- | 80.1 | ----- |
| May | 95.3 | ----- | 79.7 | ----- | 100.3 | ----- | 83.3 | ----- | 113.9 | ----- | 86.1 | ----- |
| June | 94.4 | ----- | 80.1 | ----- | 103.9 | ----- | 87.5 | ----- | 118.5 | ----- | 92.2 | ----- |
| July | 93.6 | ----- | 79.4 | ----- | 105.8 | ----- | 89.0 | ----- | 111.0 | ----- | 79.5 | ----- |
| August | 94.3 | ----- | 80.5 | ----- | 104.7 | ----- | 88.0 | ----- | 110.3 | ----- | 81.3 | ----- |
| September | 95.7 | ----- | 82.4 | ----- | 104.1 | ----- | 86.4 | ----- | 112.8 | ----- | 85.7 | ----- |
| October | 96.9 | ----- | 84.1 | ----- | 99.9 | ----- | 83.4 | ----- | 110.5 | ----- | 83.6 | ----- |
| November | 96.6 | ----- | 84.3 | ----- | 97.8 | ----- | 81.1 | ----- | 103.5 | ----- | 73.7 | ----- |
| December | 94.9 | ----- | 82.6 | ----- | 97.0 | ----- | 81.1 | ----- | 99.2 | ----- | 68.6 | ----- |
| Average | 94.9 | ----- | 80.6 | ----- | 100.6 | ----- | 83.0 | ----- | 107.5 | ----- | 77.6 | ----- |

[2] Revised.
[3] Not including electric-railroad car building and repairing; see transportation equipment and railroad repair-shop groups, manufacturing industries, table 1.

## TREND OF INDUSTRIAL AND BUSINESS EMPLOYMENT, BY STATES

A comparison of employment and pay rolls, by States and geographic divisions, in February and March 1938, is shown in table 4 for all groups combined, and for all manufacturing industries combined based on data supplied by reporting establishments. The percentage changes shown, unless otherwise noted, are unweighted—that is, the industries included in the manufacturing group and in the grand total have not been weighted according to their relative importance.

The totals for all manufacturing industries combined include figures for miscellaneous manufacturing industries in addition to the 89 manufacturing industries presented in table 1. The totals for all groups combined include all manufacturing industries, each of the nonmanufacturing industries presented in table 1 (except building construction), and seasonal hotels.

TABLE 4.—*Comparison of Employment and Pay Rolls in Identical Establishments in February and March 1938, by Geographic Divisions and by States*

[Figures in italics are not compiled by the Bureau of Labor Statistics, but are taken from reports issued by cooperating State organizations]

| Geographic division and State | Total all groups | | | | | Manufacturing | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Number of establishments | Number on pay roll March 1938 | Percentage change from February 1938 | Amount of pay roll (1 week) March 1938 | Percentage change from February 1938 | Number of establishments | Number on pay roll March 1938 | Percentage change from February 1938 | Amount of pay roll (1 week) March 1938 | Percentage change from February 1938 |
| | | | | *Dollars* | | | | | *Dollars* | |
| **New England** | **13,802** | **789,043** | **−1.7** | **17,440,712** | **−1.7** | **3,611** | **539,431** | **−1.7** | **11,166,207** | **−2.4** |
| Maine | 792 | 51,683 | −2.3 | 1,023,228 | −4.0 | 294 | 42,043 | −2.5 | 791,538 | −5.2 |
| New Hampshire | 611 | 33,967 | −2.5 | 675,369 | −3.1 | 202 | 27,318 | −2.8 | 521,363 | −3.7 |
| Vermont | 446 | 14,027 | −4.2 | 300,419 | −2.3 | 147 | 8,533 | −5.6 | 178,730 | −2.6 |
| Massachusetts | [1] *8,291* | *429,465* | *−1.3* | *9,859,850* | *−1.0* | *1,796* | *249,160* | *−1.1* | *5,299,261* | *−1.4* |
| Rhode Island | 1,226 | 77,730 | −1.8 | 1,615,213 | −2.9 | 427 | 60,261 | −1.9 | 1,174,924 | −4.0 |
| Connecticut | 2,436 | 182,171 | −2.4 | 3,966,633 | −2.2 | 745 | 152,116 | −1.7 | 3,200,391 | −2.3 |
| **Middle Atlantic** | **32,069** | **1,990,835** | **−.7** | **50,724,750** | **−.1** | **5,462** | **1,105,713** | **−.9** | **26,710,098** | **−.6** |
| New York | 20,648 | 898,558 | −.2 | 24,730,320 | +.2 | [2] *2,304* | *406,518* | *−.4* | *10,759,042* | + [3] |
| New Jersey | 4,227 | 319,725 | −1.0 | 8,040,040 | −.9 | [4] *839* | *232,675* | *−1.7* | *5,747,382* | *−1.9* |
| Pennsylvania | 7,194 | 772,552 | −1.2 | 17,954,390 | −.3 | *2,319* | *466,520* | [5] *−.8* | *10,203,674* | [5] *+.5* |
| **East North Central** | **24,820** | **1,941,321** | **−1.4** | **47,624,164** | **−.3** | **8,552** | **1,444,905** | **−1.5** | **35,065,222** | **−.1** |
| Ohio | 7,368 | 525,925 | −.9 | 12,269,651 | +.1 | 2,550 | 383,831 | −1.2 | 8,891,446 | + [3] |
| Indiana | *2,634* | *230,908* | *−.4* | *5,198,602* | *+2.7* | *982* | *182,584* | *−.3* | *4,104,635* | *+4.1* |
| Illinois | [6] *6,617* | *564,564* | *−1.9* | *14,439,747* | *−1.6* | *2,446* | *379,754* | *−2.7* | *9,504,837* | *−2.1* |
| Michigan | 3,877 | 394,749 | −2.3 | 10,232,274 | −.2 | *1,043* | *342,369* | *−1.7* | *8,747,619* | *+.3* |
| Wisconsin | [7] *4,324* | *225,175* | *−.2* | *5,483,890* | *−.7* | [8] *1,531* | *156,367* | [5] *−.3* | *3,816,685* | [5] *−.2* |
| **West North Central** | **11,590** | **395,627** | **+.4** | **9,332,928** | **+.7** | **2,471** | **198,961** | **−.1** | **4,724,588** | **−.1** |
| Minnesota | 2,068 | 79,567 | +.4 | 2,027,949 | +1.0 | 439 | 377,735 | −.9 | 990,512 | +1.2 |
| Iowa | 1,740 | 60,193 | +1.1 | 1,399,138 | +2.6 | 439 | 35,234 | +2.2 | 850,611 | +4.2 |
| Missouri | 2,879 | 160,673 | +.9 | 3,683,006 | +.7 | 861 | 89,401 | +.1 | 1,952,154 | −1.9 |
| North Dakota | 543 | 4,534 | +1.9 | 109,932 | +1.2 | 56 | 599 | +1.5 | 16,560 | +1.2 |
| South Dakota | 438 | 7,069 | + [3] | 182,633 | −1.6 | 38 | 1,943 | −.4 | 47,670 | −4.5 |
| Nebraska | 1,438 | 28,563 | −.9 | 631,195 | −1.8 | 164 | 9,551 | −3.3 | 235,018 | −1.1 |
| Kansas | [9] *2,484* | *55,028* | [10] *−2.0* | *1,299,075* | [5] *−.2* | *474* | *24,498* | *−1.4* | *632,063* | *−1.2* |
| **South Atlantic** | **10,986** | **826,713** | **−.3** | **15,251,385** | **−.6** | **2,874** | **546,962** | **+.1** | **9,240,416** | **+.5** |
| Delaware | 208 | 14,101 | −1.7 | 334,208 | −1.2 | *85* | *9,750* | *−2.1* | *226,595* | *−.8* |
| Maryland | *1,618* | *128,425* | − [3] | *2,935,777* | *+.6* | *617* | *87,699* | [5] *−.2* | *1,947,893* | [5] *−.8* |

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 4.—*Comparison of Employment and Pay Rolls in Identical Establishments in February and March 1938, by Geographic Divisons and by States*—Continued

| Geographic division and State | Total all groups | | | | | Manufacturing | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Number of establishments | Number on pay roll March 1938 | Percentage change from February 1938 | Amount of pay roll (1 week) March 1938 | Percentage change from February 1938 | Number of establishments | Number on pay roll March 1938 | Percentage change from February 1938 | Amount of pay roll (1 week) March 1938 | Percentage change from February 1938 |
| South Atlantic—Continued. | | | | *Dollars* | | | | | *Dollars* | |
| District of Columbia | 1,088 | 38,526 | [11]−0.7 | 993,469 | +0.9 | 38 | 3,239 | −1.4 | 109,100 | +0.6 |
| Virginia | 2,108 | 111,286 | +.9 | 2,037,204 | −1.1 | 464 | 76,670 | +.8 | 1,360,395 | −1.5 |
| West Virginia | 1,273 | 141,447 | −2.6 | 3,069,491 | −4.3 | 267 | 51,949 | −2.2 | 1,145,732 | −2.0 |
| North Carolina | 1,459 | 152,028 | + ([3]) | 2,284,300 | +1.6 | 600 | 139,381 | +.6 | 2,057,656 | +2.3 |
| South Carolina | 731 | 77,593 | +1.3 | 1,049,206 | +1.3 | 213 | 70,040 | +1.4 | 910,479 | +1.5 |
| Georgia | 1,442 | 108,619 | +.1 | 1,614,826 | +.6 | 382 | 84,038 | −.2 | 1,103,926 | +.5 |
| Florida | 1,059 | 54,688 | −.2 | 932,904 | −.8 | 208 | 24,196 | +.2 | 379,640 | +1.2 |
| **East South Central** | **5,249** | **278,708** | **−.5** | **4,825,215** | **−1.1** | **1,086** | **167,541** | **−.5** | **2,757,901** | **−.5** |
| Kentucky | 1,360 | 78,798 | −2.7 | 1,452,182 | −6.1 | 305 | 32,414 | −4.1 | 609,358 | −6.5 |
| Tennessee | 1,413 | 94,012 | +.5 | 1,609,914 | +1.2 | 391 | 67,276 | +.6 | 1,126,510 | +2.0 |
| Alabama | 1,844 | 86,117 | +.6 | 1,469,054 | +2.1 | 288 | 55,349 | +.9 | 861,154 | +2.7 |
| Mississippi | 632 | 19,781 | −1.1 | 294,065 | −3.2 | 102 | 12,502 | −2.4 | 160,879 | −8.4 |
| **West South Central** | **6,078** | **227,566** | **−.9** | **5,038,949** | **+.3** | **1,404** | **109,696** | **−1.2** | **2,331,186** | **+.8** |
| Arkansas | [12] *950* | *29,586* | *−1.7* | *510,127* | *−2.6* | *287* | *17,860* | *−1.4* | *285,828* | *−3.5* |
| Louisiana | 1,067 | 54,572 | −2.0 | 1,085,971 | +1.2 | 262 | 31,310 | −2.4 | 591,015 | +2.4 |
| Oklahoma | 1,395 | 41,535 | −1.5 | 1,038,099 | − ([3]) | 144 | 11,698 | −3.0 | 288,112 | −.2 |
| Texas | [13] *2,666* | *101,873* | *+.1* | *2,404,752* | *+.7* | *711* | *48,828* | *+.1* | *1,166,231* | *+1.3* |
| **Mountain** | **4,177** | **117,703** | **−1.2** | **2,979,226** | **−1.6** | **600** | **31,989** | **+3.2** | **814,799** | **+2.7** |
| Montana | 641 | 15,496 | −1.3 | 466,343 | −.2 | 84 | 3,660 | +3.4 | 100,170 | −.4 |
| Idaho | 444 | 9,209 | −2.6 | 240,644 | +4.1 | 61 | 2,306 | +3.6 | 57,841 | +11.5 |
| Wyoming | 326 | 8,774 | −1.3 | 230,820 | −2.8 | 42 | 1,615 | −1.3 | 53,213 | −1.6 |
| Colorado | 1,208 | 39,838 | +.9 | 958,881 | −.4 | 194 | 13,184 | +6.5 | 337,114 | +6.9 |
| New Mexico | 296 | 6,720 | +1.0 | 131,414 | −7.6 | 34 | 1,007 | +7.6 | 14,930 | −14.2 |
| Arizona | 460 | 14,744 | −6.8 | 382,440 | −5.9 | 41 | 2,994 | −3.8 | 71,376 | −5.7 |
| Utah | 604 | 19,890 | −1.3 | 479,424 | −2.5 | 126 | 6,458 | −.2 | 158,599 | +.4 |
| Nevada | 198 | 3,032 | +.4 | 89,260 | +2.5 | 18 | 765 | +9.9 | 21,556 | +5.5 |
| **Pacific** | **9,580** | **415,580** | **+.7** | **11,620,180** | **+2.1** | **2,624** | **218,112** | **+2.9** | **5,792,486** | **+4.0** |
| Washington | 2,968 | 90,177 | +5.9 | 2,333,756 | +6.7 | 575 | 49,031 | +11.2 | 1,238,059 | +14.6 |
| Oregon | 1,341 | 45,550 | +6.8 | 1,186,809 | +9.9 | 323 | 26,106 | +11.3 | 657,344 | +17.8 |
| California | [14] *5,271* | *279,853* | *−1.8* | *8,099,615* | *−.2* | *1,726* | *142,975* | *−1.0* | *3,897,083* | *−.9* |

[1] Includes banks and trust companies, construction, municipal, agricultural, and office employment, amusement and recreation, professional services, and trucking and handling.
[2] Includes laundering and cleaning, and water, light, and power.
[3] Less than 1/10 of 1 percent.
[4] Includes laundries.
[5] Weighted percentage change.
[6] Includes automobile and miscellaneous services, restaurants, and building and contracting.
[7] Includes construction but not public works.
[8] Does not include logging.
[9] Includes financial institutions, miscellaneous services, and restaurants.
[10] Weighted percentage change including hired farm labor.
[11] Percentage change from January to February should have been +0.5 instead of +4.5.
[12] Includes automobile dealers and garages, and sand, gravel, and building stone.
[13] Includes business and personal service.
[14] Includes banks, insurance, and office employment.

## INDUSTRIAL AND BUSINESS EMPLOYMENT IN PRINCIPAL METROPOLITAN AREAS

A comparison of employment and pay rolls in February and March 1938 is made in table 5 for 13 metropolitan areas which had a population of 500,000 or over in 1930. Cities within these areas, but having a population of 100,000 or over, are not included as data concerning them are tabulated separately and are available on request.

Footnotes to the table indicate which cities are excluded. The figures represent reports from cooperating establishments and cover both full- and part-time workers in the manufacturing and nonmanufacturing industries presented in table 4 with the exception of building construction, and include also miscellaneous industries.

TABLE 5.—*Comparison of Employment and Pay Rolls in Identical Establishments in February and March 1938, by Principal Metropolitan Areas*

| Metropolitan area | Number of establishments | Number on pay roll March | Percentage change from February | Amount of pay roll (1 week) March | Percentage change from February |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| New York [1] | 14,908 | 597,922 | −0.2 | $15,940,047 | −0.6 |
| Chicago [2] | 4,337 | 432,198 | −2.2 | 11,624,747 | −1.6 |
| Philadelphia [3] | 1,957 | 192,339 | −.7 | 4,993,472 | −1.2 |
| Detroit | 1,687 | 241,165 | −2.4 | 6,774,995 | +.8 |
| Los Angeles [4] | 2,871 | 147,882 | −2.5 | 4,147,741 | −.8 |
| Cleveland | 1,727 | 115,070 | −2.5 | 2,793,153 | −1.1 |
| St. Louis | 1,523 | 123,655 | +.3 | 2,908,027 | +.2 |
| Baltimore | 1,217 | 101,023 | −(5) | 2,326,400 | −.9 |
| Boston [6] | 1,493 | 100,224 | +.2 | 2,712,401 | +1.3 |
| Pittsburgh | 1,033 | 169,860 | −2.7 | 3,959,131 | −1.9 |
| San Francisco [7] | 1,658 | 79,859 | −.9 | 2,353,156 | +.1 |
| Buffalo | 886 | 56,483 | −1.0 | 1,455,535 | +2.5 |
| Milwaukee | 1,120 | 98,273 | +.2 | 2,522,753 | −1.5 |

[1] Does not include Elizabeth, Jersey City, Newark, or Paterson, N. J.; nor Yonkers, N. Y.
[2] Does not include Gary, Ind.
[3] Does not include Camden, N. J.
[4] Does not include Long Beach, Calif.
[5] Less than 1/10 of 1 percent.
[6] Figures relate to city of Boston only.
[7] Does not include Oakland, Calif.

# *Building Operations*

## SUMMARY OF BUILDING CONSTRUCTION IN PRINCIPAL CITIES, APRIL 1938[1]

IN APRIL the value of permits issued for building construction in 2,025 identical cities reporting to the Bureau in March and April was $136,242,000, an increase of 12.8 percent compared with the preceding month. There was a gain of 10.6 percent in new residential construction, 14.3 percent in new nonresidential building, and 15.3 percent in additions, alterations, and repairs.

Permit valuations based on reports from 1,546 cities reporting in April 1937, as well as in April 1938, were 24.0 percent less than last April's figure. All classes of construction showed decreases, the most pronounced (32.6 percent) occurring in new residential construction. The value of new nonresidential construction dropped 14.1 percent when compared with April 1937; and additions, alterations, and repairs declined 17.1 percent.

### *Comparison of April 1938 with March 1938*

A summary of building construction in 2,025 identical cities in March and April 1938 is given in table 1.

TABLE 1.—*Summary of Building Construction for Which Permits Were Issued in 2,025 Identical Cities, March and April 1938*

| Class of construction | Number of buildings | | | Permit valuation | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | April 1938 | March 1938 | Percentage change | April 1938 | March 1938 | Percentage change |
| All construction | 60, 534 | 55, 895 | +8. 3 | $136, 241, 519 | $120, 748, 107 | +12. 8 |
| New residential | 12, 534 | 11, 931 | +5. 1 | 60, 854, 744 | 55, 033, 836 | +10. 6 |
| New nonresidential | 10, 795 | 9, 584 | +12. 6 | 44, 675, 273 | 39, 084, 242 | +14. 3 |
| Additions, alterations, and repairs | 37, 205 | 34, 380 | +8. 2 | 30, 711, 502 | 26, 630, 029 | +15. 3 |

### *Comparison of April 1938 with April 1937*

Table 2 presents a summary of the number of buildings and value of permits issued in 1,546 identical cities in April 1938 compared with the corresponding month of 1937.

[1] More detailed information by geographic divisions and individual cities is given in a separate pamphlet entitled "Building Construction, April 1938," copies of which will be furnished upon request.

TABLE 2.—*Summary of Building Construction for Which Permits Were Issued in 1,546 Identical Cities, April 1937 and 1938*

| Class of construction | Number of buildings | | | Permit valuation | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | April 1938 | April 1937 | Percentage change | April 1938 | April 1937 | Percentage change |
| All construction | 59,362 | 69,664 | −14.8 | $133,810,264 | $176,042,276 | −24.0 |
| New residential | 12,137 | 15,183 | −20.1 | 59,432,449 | 88,192,627 | −32.6 |
| New nonresidential | 10,498 | 12,992 | −19.2 | 43,983,885 | 51,191,735 | −14.1 |
| Additions, alterations, and repairs | 36,727 | 41,489 | −11.5 | 30,393,930 | 36,657,914 | −17.1 |

A summary of permit valuations of housekeeping dwellings and the number of families provided for in new dwellings in 2,025 identical cities, having a population of 1,000 and over, is shown in table 3 for April compared with March 1938.

TABLE 3.—*Permit Valuation of Housekeeping Dwellings and Number of Families Provided for in 2,025 Identical Cities, March and April 1938*

| Type of dwelling | Permit valuation of housekeeping dwellings | | | Number of families provided for in new dwellings | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | April 1938 | March 1938 | Percentage change | April 1938 | March 1938 | Percentage change |
| All types | $60,351,055 | $54,447,683 | +10.8 | 16,198 | 14,558 | +11.3 |
| 1-family | 46,734,743 | 43,867,576 | +6.5 | 11,684 | 11,037 | +5.9 |
| 2-family [1] | 2,831,561 | 3,037,779 | −6.8 | 1,117 | 1,118 | −.1 |
| Multifamily [2] | 10,784,751 | 7,542,328 | +43.0 | 3,397 | 2,403 | +41.4 |

[1] Includes 1- and 2-family dwellings with stores.
[2] Includes multifamily dwellings with stores.

Table 4 gives a comparison of the value of permits issued for housekeeping dwellings and the number of families provided for in new dwellings in 1,546 identical cities, with a population of 2,500 and over, in April 1938 with the corresponding month of the preceding year.

TABLE 4.—*Permit Valuation of Housekeeping Dwellings and Number of Families Provided for in 1,546 Identical Cities, April 1937 and 1938*

| Type of dwelling | Permit valuation of housekeeping dwellings | | | Number of families provided for in new dwellings | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | April 1938 | April 1937 | Percentage change | April 1938 | April 1937 | Percentage change |
| All types | $58,933,860 | $86,899,905 | −32.2 | 15,783 | 21,324 | −26.0 |
| 1-family | 45,384,698 | 63,618,844 | −28.7 | 11,304 | 13,952 | −19.0 |
| 2-family [1] | 2,777,661 | 4,037,358 | −31.2 | 1,097 | 1,330 | −17.5 |
| Multifamily [2] | 10,771,501 | 19,243,703 | −44.0 | 3,382 | 6,042 | −44.0 |

[1] Includes 1- and 2-family dwellings with stores.
[2] Includes multifamily dwellings with stores.

## *Analysis by Size of City, April 1938*

Table 5 shows the value of permits issued for building construction in April 1938 compared with March 1938 and April 1937, by size of city and by class of construction.

TABLE 5.—*Permit Valuation of Building Construction, by Size of City, April 1938*

| Size of city | Number of cities | Total construction | | | New residential buildings | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | Permit valuation, April 1938 | Percentage change from— | | Permit valuation, April 1938 | Percentage change from— | |
| | | | March 1938 | April 1937 | | March 1938 | April 1937 |
| Total, all reporting cities | 2,025 | $136,241,519 | +12.8 | [1]−24.0 | $60,854,744 | +10.6 | [1]−32.6 |
| 500,000 and over | 14 | 42,377,371 | +11.7 | −32.7 | 18,524,438 | +10.1 | −41.5 |
| 100,000 and under 500,000 | 79 | 27,944,913 | −2.3 | −25.6 | 12,728,845 | +5.5 | −23.2 |
| 50,000 and under 100,000 | 94 | 18,569,460 | +53.8 | −2.4 | 5,721,933 | +18.1 | −31.8 |
| 25,000 and under 50,000 | 153 | 12,891,087 | +27.3 | −18.8 | 5,778,102 | +40.1 | −19.5 |
| 10,000 and under 25,000 | 426 | 17,182,742 | +1.0 | −26.9 | 8,963,457 | +5.6 | −32.5 |
| 5,000 and under 10,000 | 350 | 6,749,823 | −5.2 | −32.9 | 4,330,321 | +7.3 | −36.2 |
| 2,500 and under 5,000 | 430 | 8,094,868 | +55.8 | +14.9 | 3,385,353 | −1.7 | −22.2 |
| 1,000 and under 2,500 | 479 | 2,431,255 | −9.1 | ------- | 1,422,295 | +18.2 | ------- |

| Size of city | New nonresidential buildings | | | Additions, alterations, and repairs | | | Population (census of 1930) |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Permit valuation, April 1938 | Percentage change from— | | Permit valuation, April 1938 | Percentage change from— | | |
| | | March 1938 | April 1937 | | March 1938 | April 1937 | |
| Total, all reporting cities | $44,675,273 | +14.3 | [1]−14.1 | $30,711,502 | +15.3 | [1]−17.1 | 59,512,236 |
| 500,000 and over | 13,396,403 | +10.0 | −23.0 | 10,456,530 | +17.1 | −24.9 | 21,449,853 |
| 100,000 and under 500,000 | 8,349,103 | −11.7 | −30.5 | 6,866,965 | −3.0 | −23.6 | 15,017,880 |
| 50,000 and under 100,000 | 8,267,860 | +97.7 | +20.5 | 4,579,667 | +50.3 | +21.1 | 6,269,520 |
| 25,000 and under 50,000 | 3,962,001 | +8.2 | −26.3 | 3,150,984 | +34.7 | −5.2 | 5,442,539 |
| 10,000 and under 25,000 | 4,603,665 | −12.4 | −22.5 | 3,615,620 | +10.5 | −15.4 | 6,567,262 |
| 5,000 and under 10,000 | 1,289,584 | −31.5 | −23.5 | 1,129,918 | −5.9 | −28.9 | 2,463,690 |
| 2,500 and under 5,000 | 4,115,269 | +246.0 | +114.6 | 594,246 | +5.5 | −23.4 | 1,538,807 |
| 1,000 and under 2,500 | 691,388 | −45.8 | ------- | 317,572 | +60.4 | ------- | 762,685 |

[1] Based on 1,546 reporting cities.

The permit valuation of housekeeping dwellings in the 2,025 identical cities reporting for March and April 1938, together with the number of family-dwelling units provided in new dwellings, by size of city, is given in table 6.

TABLE 6.—*Permit Valuation of Housekeeping Dwellings and Number of Families Provided for in 2,025 Identical Cities, by Size of City, March and April 1938*

| Size of city | Permit valuation of housekeeping dwellings | | | Number of families provided for in— | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | | All types | | 1-family dwellings | | 2-family dwellings[1] | | Multi-family dwellings[2] | |
| | Apr. 1938 | Mar. 1938 | Percentage change | Apr. 1938 | Mar. 1938 | Apr. 1938 | Mar. 1938 | Apr. 1938 | Mar. 1938 | Apr. 1938 | Mar. 1938 |
| Total, all reporting cities | $60,351,055 | $54,447,683 | +10.8 | 16,198 | 14,558 | 11,684 | 11,037 | 1,117 | 1,118 | 3,397 | 2,403 |
| 500,000 and over | 18,387,958 | 16,811,450 | +9.4 | 4,578 | 4,127 | 2,578 | 2,668 | 287 | 272 | 1,713 | 1,187 |
| 100,000 and under 500,000 | 12,623,036 | 12,065,884 | +4.6 | 3,525 | 3,387 | 2,624 | 2,438 | 274 | 283 | 627 | 666 |
| 50,000 and under 100,000 | 5,702,433 | 4,681,571 | +21.8 | 1,617 | 1,326 | 1,132 | 1,071 | 195 | 155 | 290 | 100 |
| 25,000 and under 50,000 | 5,768,102 | 4,123,827 | +39.9 | 1,576 | 1,124 | 1,078 | 959 | 93 | 86 | 405 | 79 |
| 10,000 and under 25,000 | 8,929,457 | 8,345,202 | +7.0 | 2,459 | 2,309 | 2,146 | 1,989 | 143 | 167 | 170 | 153 |
| 5,000 and under 10,000 | 4,273,221 | 3,791,312 | +12.7 | 1,175 | 1,026 | 2,021 | 901 | 58 | 64 | 96 | 61 |
| 2,500 and under 5,000 | 3,249,653 | 3,435,520 | −5.4 | 853 | 898 | 725 | 704 | 47 | 56 | 81 | 138 |
| 1,000 and under 2,500 | 1,417,195 | 1,192,917 | +18.8 | 415 | 361 | 380 | 307 | 20 | 35 | 15 | 19 |

[1] Includes 1- and 2-family dwellings with stores.
[2] Includes multifamily dwellings with stores.

## *Construction During First 4 Months, 1937 and 1938*

Cumulative totals for the first 4 months of 1938 compared with the same months of the preceding year are shown in table 7. The data are based on reports received from cities having a population of 2,500 and over.

TABLE 7.—*Permit Valuation of Building Construction, First 4 Months of 1937 and of 1938, by Class of Construction*

| Class of construction | Permit valuation of building construction, first 4 months of— | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| | 1938 | 1937 | Percentage change |
| All construction | $526,662,692 | $576,960,160 | −8.7 |
| New residential | 244,734,663 | 281,387,296 | −13.0 |
| New nonresidential | 176,916,883 | 175,116,047 | +1.0 |
| Additions, alterations, and repairs | 105,011,146 | 120,456,817 | −12.8 |

Table 8 presents the permit valuation of housekeeping dwellings and number of family-dwelling units provided in cities, with a population of 2,500 and over, for the first 4 months of 1937 and 1938.

TABLE 8.—*Permit Valuation of Housekeeping Dwellings and Number of Families Provided for in New Dwellings, First 4 Months, 1937 and 1938, by Type of Dwelling*

| Type of dwelling | Permit valuation of housekeeping dwellings | | | Number of families provided for | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | First 4 months of— | | Percentage change | First 4 months of— | | Percentage change |
| | 1938 | 1937 | | 1938 | 1937 | |
| All types | $243,253,381 | $278,139,559 | −12.5 | 69,462 | 70,024 | −0.8 |
| 1-family | 138,688,767 | 193,195,213 | −28.2 | 35,691 | 42,958 | −16.9 |
| 2-family [1] | 10,425,859 | 11,977,275 | −13.0 | 4,113 | 4,221 | −2.6 |
| Multifamily [2] | 94,138,755 | 72,967,071 | +29.0 | 29,658 | 22,845 | +29.8 |

[1] Includes 1- and 2-family dwellings with stores.
[2] Includes multifamily dwellings with stores.

The information on building permits issued in March and April 1938 is based on reports received by the Bureau of Labor Statistics from 2,025 identical cities having a population of 1,000 and over. The data for April 1937 and 1938 are based on reports from 1,546 identical cities with a population of 2,500 and over.

The information is collected by the Bureau of Labor Statistics from local building officials, except in the States of Illinois, Massachusetts, New Jersey, New York, North Carolina, and Pennsylvania, where the State departments of labor collect and forward the information to the Bureau. The permit valuations shown in this report are estimates made by prospective builders on applying for permits to build. No land costs are included. Only building projects within the corporate limits of the cities enumerated are included in the Bureau's tabulation. In addition to permits issued for private and municipal building construction, the statistics include the value of contracts for Federal and State buildings in the cities covered by the report. Data concerning public buildings are collected by the Bureau from the various Federal and State agencies having the power to award contracts for building construction. In April 1938 the value of these public buildings amounted to $9,241,000; in March 1938, to $6,804,000; and in April 1937, to $6,668,000.

## *Construction from Public Funds*

The value of contracts awarded and force-account work started during April 1938, March 1938, and April 1937 on projects financed from various Federal funds is shown in table 9.

TABLE 9.—*Value of Contracts Awarded and Force-Account Work Started on Projects Financed from Federal Funds, March and April 1938 and April 1937* [1]

| Federal agency | Value of contracts awarded and force-account work started— | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| | April 1938 | March 1938 [2] | April 1937 [2] |
| Total | $50,036,786 | $85,906,437 | $76,260,689 |
| Public Works Administration: | | | |
| Federal | 376,602 | 762,774 | 1,465,997 |
| Non-Federal: | | | |
| N. I. R. A. | 3,687,320 | 2,081,796 | 2,211,076 |
| E. R. A. A. | 15,287,654 | 27,060,043 | 25,635,135 |
| Federal projects under The Works Program | 1,655,659 | 13,091,137 | 9,753,687 |
| Regular Federal appropriations | 29,029,551 | 42,910,687 | 37,194,794 |

[1] Preliminary, subject to revision.
[2] Revised.

The value of public-building and highway construction awards financed wholly from appropriations from State funds, as reported by the various State governments for April 1938, March 1938, and April 1937, is shown in table 10.

TABLE 10.—*Value of Public-Building and Highway-Construction Awards Financed Wholly from State Funds*

| Type of project | Value of contracts | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| | April 1938 | March 1938 | April 1937 |
| Public building | $1,277,407 | $2,230,640 | $1,303,961 |
| Highway construction | 8,748,603 | 4,142,219 | 4,134,739 |

# *Retail Prices*

## SUMMARY

### *Food and Coal*

FOOD costs moved upward for the second consecutive period, advancing 1.1 percent between March and April. Higher costs for meats and for fresh fruits and vegetables were responsible for the increase.

Coal prices advanced slightly during the quarter ended March 15, contrary to the usual price movement for that period. For bituminous coal, the average increase amounted to 1.0 percent; for anthracite, it was negligible.

## FOOD

### *Prices in April 1938*

THE retail cost of food showed an increase of 1.1 percent between March and April due to another advance in the cost of meats and to a sharp upturn for fresh fruits and vegetables. For other commodity groups lower costs were reported.

The April index was 79.4 percent of the 1923–25 average. This is 7.2 percent below the level for April a year ago when the index was 85.6. During the yearly interval costs have decreased for each commodity group. In spite of the current advance for fruits and vegetables, the present level for this group is 21.8 percent lower than in April 1937.

#### DETAILS BY COMMODITY GROUPS

The cost of cereals and bakery products decreased 0.4 percent between March and April, continuing the steady decline which was first reported last August. The price of flour decreased 2.2 percent and reached the lowest level since the summer of 1933. White bread showed only a negligible decrease. Rice declined 1.6 percent and is now selling at lower prices than at any time since early in 1934. Price changes for other items in the group were unimportant.

Meat costs, which turned upward in March, advanced 2.1 percent during April. Higher costs were reported from 43 of the 51 cities. In most cases this was a further increase over that reported in March. Beef increased 3.1 percent. Sirloin and round steak showed an increase of slightly more than 5.0 percent. The advance of 1.4 percent for pork was due entirely to price increases of 4.4 percent for pork chops, 1.7 percent for loin roast and 1.9 percent for whole ham. The cost of lamb rose 1.2 percent, with higher prices reported for each item. The price of roasting chickens showed a seasonal increase of 2.3 percent.

The index for dairy products declined 1.9 percent, due in large part to a seasonal decrease of 3.6 percent in the price of butter. Lower prices were reported for each item in the group. Price levels for butter, cheese, and evaporated milk are lower than at any time since the summer of 1936. The average decrease of 1.0 percent for fresh milk resulted from a drop of 1 cent a quart in Columbus, Ohio, and in St. Louis, Mo., with smaller decreases in four other cities.

The decrease of 0.8 percent for eggs was less than the usual seasonal decline. Lower prices were reported from 32 cities, and higher prices from 18. The average price of eggs is 12.1 percent below the level of the corresponding month of last year.

The index for fruits and vegetables, which has been stable during the past 4 months, increased 6.9 percent in April. This was due to a marked increase of 8.1 percent in the cost of fresh products. The seasonal advance of 14.0 percent for potatoes, which were higher in 39 cities, was the most important factor in this increase. Lettuce, which more than doubled in price, recorded the most unusual change. Prices of the staple items, cabbage and onions, decreased 5.8 percent and 0.5 percent respectively, contrary to their usual seasonal trend. The canned and dried items showed cost decreases of less than 1.0 percent.

A decrease of 0.8 percent for coffee was the controlling factor in the decline of 0.6 percent for beverages and chocolate. Fats and oils were 1.2 percent lower. This was largely the result of a 3.0 percent decrease in the price of lard. Other price changes in the group were unimportant.

Sugar prices were down 1.9 percent. Lower prices for each item in the group contributed to a decline of 1.2 percent for sugar and sweets.

Indexes of retail food costs for April and March 1938, together with indexes for April 1937, 1933, and 1929 are shown in table 1. The accompanying chart shows trends in the cost of all foods and of each major commodity group for the period January 1929 to April 1938, inclusive.

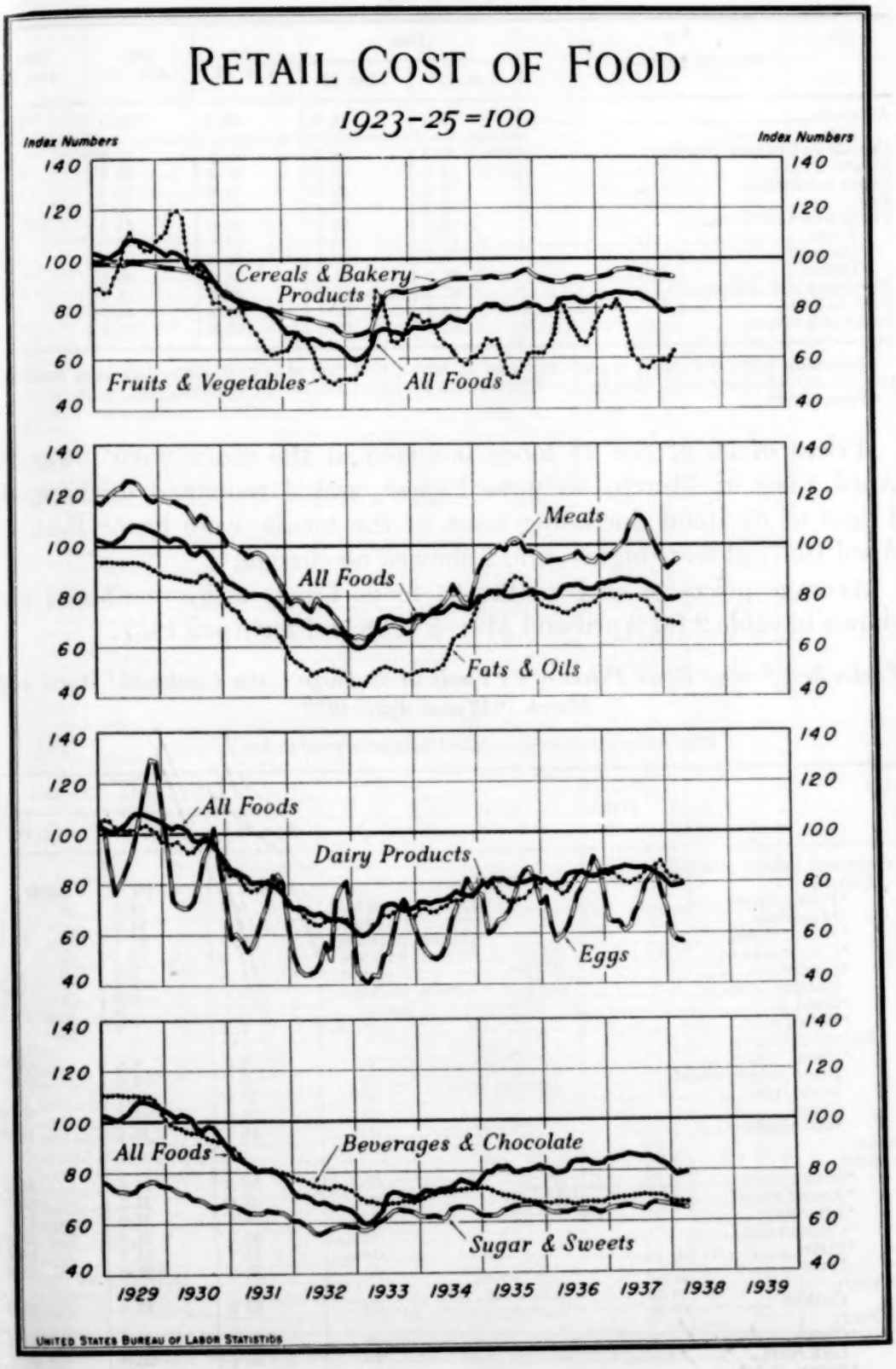
RETAIL COST OF FOOD
1923-25=100
Index Numbers
Index Numbers
140
120
100
80
60
40
Cereals & Bakery Products
Fruits & Vegetables
All Foods
Meats
All Foods
Fats & Oils
All Foods
Dairy Products
Eggs
All Foods
Beverages & Chocolate
Sugar & Sweets
1929 1930 1931 1932 1933 1934 1935 1936 1937 1938 1939
UNITED STATES BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS

TABLE 1.—*Indexes of Retail Food Costs in 51 Large Cities Combined,*[1] *by Commodity Groups, April and March 1938 and April 1937, 1933, and 1929*

[1923-25=100]

| Commodity group | 1938 | | 1937 | 1933 | 1929 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Apr. 12[2] | Mar. 15 | Apr. 13 | Apr. 15 | Apr. 15 |
| All foods | 79.4 | 78.6 | 85.6 | 60.1 | 100.8 |
| Cereals and bakery products | 92.5 | 92.9 | 93.8 | 69.8 | 98.2 |
| Meats | 94.8 | 92.9 | 97.7 | 63.4 | 120.7 |
| Dairy products | 79.8 | 81.4 | 81.6 | 60.4 | 102.9 |
| Eggs | 56.9 | 57.4 | 64.7 | 40.7 | 76.4 |
| Fruits and vegetables | 62.6 | 58.5 | 80.0 | 54.4 | 87.3 |
| Fresh | 61.2 | 56.6 | 79.5 | 54.0 | 85.1 |
| Canned | 78.9 | 79.1 | 82.8 | 65.2 | 97.3 |
| Dried | 59.8 | 59.9 | 76.4 | 48.2 | 101.7 |
| Beverages and chocolate | 67.2 | 67.7 | 69.6 | 68.4 | 111.0 |
| Fats and oils | 68.6 | 69.5 | 80.2 | 44.7 | 93.7 |
| Sugar and sweets | 64.9 | 65.6 | 66.0 | 58.1 | 72.8 |

[1] Aggregate costs of 42 foods in each city prior to Jan. 1, 1935, and of 84 foods since that date, weighted to represent total purchases, have been combined with the use of population weights.
[2] Preliminary.

Prices of 50 of the 84 foods included in the index were lower in April than in March, 30 were higher, and 4 remained unchanged. Prices of 61 items, including most of the meats, were lower than in April 1937, 21 were higher, and 2 showed no change.

Average prices of each of the 84 foods for 51 cities combined are shown in table 2 for April and March 1938 and for April 1937.

TABLE 2.—*Average Retail Prices of 84 Foods in 51 Large Cities Combined,*[1] *April and March 1938 and April 1937*

[*Indicates the 42 foods included in indexes prior to Jan. 1, 1935]

| Article | | 1938 | | 1937 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | Apr. 12[2] | Mar. 15 | Apr. 13 |
| Cereals and bakery products: | | | | |
| Cereals: | | *Cents* | *Cents* | *Cents* |
| *Flour, wheat | pound | 4.2 | 4.2 | 5.0 |
| *Macaroni | do | 14.9 | 14.9 | 15.4 |
| *Wheat cereal | 28-oz. package | 24.5 | 24.5 | 24.3 |
| *Corn flakes | 8-oz. package | 7.4 | 7.5 | 8.1 |
| *Corn meal | pound | 4.8 | 4.8 | 5.5 |
| Hominy grits | 24-oz. package | 8.8 | 8.8 | 9.7 |
| *Rice | pound | 7.7 | 7.9 | 8.5 |
| *Rolled oats | do | 7.2 | 7.2 | 7.5 |
| Bakery products: | | | | |
| *Bread, white | do | 8.9 | 8.9 | 8.6 |
| Bread, whole-wheat | do | 9.8 | 9.8 | 9.6 |
| Bread, rye | do | 10.0 | 10.1 | 9.8 |
| Cake | do | 24.8 | 24.7 | 25.3 |
| Soda crackers | do | 16.4 | 16.4 | 18.2 |
| Meats: | | | | |
| Beef: | | | | |
| *Sirloin steak | do | 36.5 | 34.6 | 41.5 |
| *Round steak | do | 33.9 | 32.1 | 37.1 |
| *Rib roast | do | 28.6 | 27.9 | 31.6 |
| *Chuck roast | do | 22.2 | 21.4 | 24.3 |
| *Plate | do | 15.1 | 14.7 | 16.6 |
| Liver | do | 25.2 | 24.6 | 25.3 |
| Veal: | | | | |
| Cutlets | do | 42.1 | 43.0 | 40.8 |
| Pork: | | | | |
| *Chops | do | 33.3 | 31.9 | 34.4 |
| Loin roast | do | 27.1 | 26.6 | 28.1 |
| *Bacon, sliced | do | 37.1 | 37.5 | 39.9 |
| Bacon, strip | do | 31.4 | 31.6 | 34.5 |
| *Ham, sliced | do | 45.3 | 45.3 | 49.0 |
| Ham, whole | do | 28.7 | 28.2 | 29.7 |
| Salt pork | do | 20.7 | 20.8 | 25.4 |

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 2.—*Average Retail Prices of 84 Foods in 51 Large Cities Combined,*[1] *April and March 1938 and April 1937*—Continued

| Article | | 1938 | | 1937 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | Apr. 12 [2] | Mar. 15 | Apr. 13 |
| Meats—Continued. | | | | |
| Lamb: | | *Cents* | *Cents* | *Cents* |
| Breast | pound | 12.9 | 12.8 | 13.8 |
| Chuck | do | 24.5 | 22.2 | 23.8 |
| *Leg | do | 28.5 | 28.2 | 30.5 |
| Rib chops | do | 36.0 | 35.5 | 38.8 |
| Poultry: | | | | |
| *Roasting chickens | do | 36.1 | 35.3 | 31.9 |
| Fish: | | | | |
| Salmon, pink | 16 oz. can | 13.9 | 14.0 | 13.0 |
| *Salmon, red | do | 26.8 | 26.8 | 24.8 |
| Dairy products: | | | | |
| *Butter | pound | 35.6 | 37.0 | 39.7 |
| *Cheese | do | 27.4 | 28.1 | 29.3 |
| Cream | ½ pint | 14.8 | 14.9 | 14.8 |
| Milk, fresh (delivered and store)[3] | quart | 12.3 | 12.4 | 12.1 |
| *Milk, fresh (delivered) | do | 12.6 | 12.7 | 12.3 |
| *Milk, evaporated | 14½-oz. can | 7.3 | 7.4 | 7.6 |
| *Eggs | dozen | 29.0 | 29.2 | 33.7 |
| Fruits and vegetables: | | | | |
| Fresh: | | | | |
| Apples | pound | 4.5 | 4.4 | 7.2 |
| *Bananas | do | 6.1 | 6.3 | 6.3 |
| Lemons | dozen | 27.9 | 27.7 | 31.2 |
| *Oranges | do | 24.0 | 24.4 | 37.6 |
| Beans, green | pound | 10.7 | 13.4 | 15.8 |
| *Cabbage | do | 4.3 | 4.5 | 4.3 |
| Carrots | bunch | 5.6 | 5.4 | 5.4 |
| Celery | stalk | 8.2 | 8.2 | 9.7 |
| Lettuce | head | 12.4 | 7.8 | 8.8 |
| *Onions | pound | 4.6 | 4.6 | 4.5 |
| *Potatoes | do | 2.4 | 2.1 | 3.7 |
| Spinach | do | 5.9 | 6.3 | 6.7 |
| Sweetpotatoes | do | 3.9 | 3.9 | 5.5 |
| Canned: | | | | |
| Peaches | No. 2½ can | 19.4 | 19.5 | 19.1 |
| Pears | do | 21.7 | 21.7 | 22.2 |
| Pineapple | do | 23.1 | 23.2 | 22.6 |
| Asparagus | No. 2 can | 30.6 | 30.5 | 27.7 |
| Beans, green | do | 11.5 | 11.6 | 12.5 |
| *Beans with pork | 16-oz. can | 7.5 | 7.5 | 7.9 |
| *Corn | No. 2 can | 11.8 | 11.9 | 13.3 |
| *Peas | do | 15.5 | 15.5 | 16.3 |
| *Tomatoes | do | 8.9 | 8.9 | 9.4 |
| Tomato soup | 10½-oz. can | 7.5 | 7.5 | 8.2 |
| Dried: | | | | |
| Peaches | pound | 15.7 | 15.8 | 17.5 |
| *Prunes | do | 9.3 | 9.3 | 10.7 |
| *Raisins | 15-oz. package | 10.0 | 10.0 | 10.1 |
| Black-eyed peas | pound | 7.8 | 7.8 | 10.1 |
| Lima beans | do | 9.2 | 9.3 | 12.1 |
| *Navy beans | do | 6.4 | 6.4 | 10.8 |
| Beverages and chocolate: | | | | |
| *Coffee | do | 23.4 | 23.6 | 25.3 |
| *Tea | ¼ pound | 17.6 | 17.7 | [4] 18.0 |
| Cocoa | 8-oz. can | 8.7 | 8.8 | 10.4 |
| Chocolate | 8-oz. package | 16.2 | 16.1 | 16.9 |
| Fats and oils: | | | | |
| *Lard | pound | 13.1 | 13.6 | 17.4 |
| Lard compound | do | 13.1 | 13.2 | 16.1 |
| *Vegetable shortening | do | 19.5 | 19.5 | 22.1 |
| Salad oil | pint | 24.9 | 24.8 | 25.7 |
| Mayonnaise | ½ pint | 17.5 | 17.5 | 17.3 |
| *Oleomargarine | pound | 17.4 | 17.6 | 19.9 |
| Peanut butter | do | 18.6 | 18.7 | 19.7 |
| Sugar and sweets: | | | | |
| *Sugar | do | [5] 5.4 | [5] 5.5 | 5.7 |
| Corn sirup | 24-oz. can | 14.0 | 14.1 | 14.5 |
| Molasses | 18-oz. can | 13.9 | 14.0 | 14.5 |
| Strawberry preserves | pound | 21.8 | 22.1 | 22.0 |

[1] Prices for individual cities are combined with the use of population weights.
[2] Preliminary.
[3] Average prices of milk delivered by dairies and sold in grocery stores weighted according to the relative proportion distributed by each method.
[4] Converted to quarter pound for comparison with 1938.
[5] Quotations for 1938 are for sales in units of 10 pounds each. Prior to November 1937, prices were quoted on sales in units of various sizes. The change to a common unit, 10 pounds, resulted in a reduction of 1/10 of 1 cent per pound at the time of revision.

## DETAILS BY REGIONS AND CITIES

The increased cost of meats and fresh fruits and vegetables was general throughout the reporting cities.

Of the 41 cities which contributed to the 1.1 percent advance in food costs, Chicago, with an increase of 3.6 percent, ranked first. In that city the cost of fruits and vegetables rose 20.7 percent and the price of potatoes went up 1.3 cents per pound. In Rochester, which ranked second, with a rise of 2.7 percent, meats were 4.3 percent higher than last month, and fruits and vegetables increased 11.8 percent. Decreases of 1.0 percent or more were reported from only two cities—Mobile, 1.2 percent, and Houston, 1.0 percent. In these cities both meats and fruits and vegetables showed lower costs, contrary to the general movement for those commodity groups in other cities.

Indexes of retail costs of food by regions and cities are given in table 3 for April and March 1938 and for April of earlier years.

TABLE 3.—*Indexes of the Average Retail Cost of All Foods, by Regions and Cities,*[1] *April and March 1938, April 1937, 1936, 1933, 1932, and 1929*

[1923–25=100]

| Region and city | 1938 | | 1937 | 1936 | 1933 | 1932 | 1929 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Apr. 12[2] | Mar. 15 | Apr. 13 | Apr. 21 | Apr. 15 | Apr. 15 | Apr. 15 |
| **United States** | **79.4** | **78.6** | **85.6** | **79.7** | **60.1** | **70.3** | 100.8 |
| **New England** | **77.0** | **76.3** | **82.0** | **78.8** | **59.8** | **70.1** | 99.6 |
| Boston | 74.7 | 74.0 | 79.3 | 77.2 | 58.7 | 68.5 | 99.2 |
| Bridgeport | 82.9 | 82.3 | 86.5 | 82.2 | 63.3 | 73.3 | 99.7 |
| Fall River | 80.1 | 79.5 | 84.9 | 80.3 | 57.8 | 69.1 | 100.2 |
| Manchester | 79.8 | 79.6 | 85.2 | 82.5 | 59.6 | 68.9 | 98.5 |
| New Haven | 81.7 | 80.8 | 87.0 | 82.2 | 62.6 | 75.0 | 101.4 |
| Portland, Maine | 77.3 | 77.6 | 84.2 | 78.7 | 61.4 | 72.9 | 100.3 |
| Providence | 76.5 | 76.2 | 83.7 | 78.7 | 59.3 | 69.1 | 98.5 |
| **Middle Atlantic** | **80.0** | **79.3** | **85.1** | **81.0** | **61.3** | **72.1** | 100.8 |
| Buffalo | 78.0 | 78.0 | 85.9 | 79.4 | 59.4 | 73.1 | 100.1 |
| Newark | 81.7 | 80.6 | 86.4 | 81.4 | 61.8 | 75.4 | 100.7 |
| New York | 80.4 | 79.9 | 84.2 | 81.8 | 63.4 | 73.6 | 101.4 |
| Philadelphia | 80.9 | 80.0 | 87.8 | 82.9 | 60.7 | 72.0 | 100.0 |
| Pittsburgh | 78.9 | 78.2 | 83.7 | 78.0 | 58.6 | 68.4 | 102.0 |
| Rochester | 80.3 | 78.2 | 87.6 | 79.9 | 57.6 | 69.4 | 97.9 |
| Scranton | 76.3 | 75.5 | 82.0 | 76.9 | 59.0 | 68.9 | 101.4 |
| **East North Central** | **81.4** | **79.7** | **87.5** | **79.8** | **59.2** | **69.4** | 102.5 |
| Chicago | 82.7 | 79.9 | 88.0 | 80.2 | 61.6 | 73.4 | 105.1 |
| Cincinnati | 79.8 | 79.4 | 88.9 | 82.3 | 60.5 | 69.8 | 104.7 |
| Cleveland | 80.6 | 79.8 | 85.2 | 79.8 | 57.0 | 66.9 | 98.9 |
| Columbus, Ohio | 77.6 | 77.3 | 86.1 | 80.1 | 58.6 | 70.1 | 99.6 |
| Detroit | 81.8 | 80.2 | 88.6 | 79.4 | 55.5 | 63.3 | 101.0 |
| Indianapolis | 79.1 | 78.2 | 87.9 | 78.3 | 56.6 | 68.5 | 102.3 |
| Milwaukee | 84.8 | 83.7 | 89.0 | 82.0 | 63.6 | 74.0 | 103.0 |
| Peoria | 80.1 | 79.0 | 88.4 | 79.5 | 61.2 | 69.5 | 100.2 |
| Springfield, Ill | 77.6 | 75.9 | 87.4 | 77.0 | 59.3 | 67.8 | 99.3 |
| **West North Central** | **81.9** | **81.0** | **90.7** | **81.9** | **59.5** | **69.8** | 101.8 |
| Kansas City | 80.3 | 78.6 | 89.7 | 79.8 | 62.2 | 70.3 | 100.3 |
| Minneapolis | 84.2 | 84.1 | 94.8 | 84.4 | 58.2 | 70.2 | 103.0 |
| Omaha | 77.5 | 76.5 | 87.3 | 79.5 | 56.8 | 67.5 | 99.7 |
| St. Louis | 84.3 | 83.6 | 91.3 | 83.5 | 60.0 | 70.6 | 103.5 |
| St. Paul | 80.5 | 80.3 | 90.4 | 80.8 | 58.4 | 69.3 | 100.5 |

[1] Aggregate costs of 42 foods in each city prior to Jan. 1, 1935, and of 84 foods since that date, weighted to represent total purchases, have been combined for regions and for the United States with the use of population weights.

[2] Preliminary.

TABLE 3.—*Indexes of the Average Retail Cost of All Foods, by Regions and Cities, April and March 1938, April 1937, 1936, 1933, 1932, and 1929*—Continued

| Region and city | 1938 | | 1937 | 1936 | 1933 | 1932 | 1929 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Apr. 12 | Mar. 15 | Apr. 13 | Apr. 21 | Apr. 15 | Apr. 15 | Apr. 15 |
| **South Atlantic** | **77.5** | **77.1** | **84.5** | **79.0** | **58.4** | **68.4** | **98.7** |
| Atlanta | 72.1 | 71.5 | 82.2 | 74.8 | 55.7 | 65.0 | 101.1 |
| Baltimore | 83.8 | 82.8 | 88.4 | 83.8 | 61.0 | 70.3 | 97.0 |
| Charleston, S. C | 78.3 | 77.9 | 84.2 | 79.4 | 58.1 | 69.6 | 99.4 |
| Jacksonville | 76.1 | 76.0 | 80.8 | 76.2 | 54.1 | 63.9 | 93.6 |
| Norfolk | 76.3 | 76.1 | 85.4 | 78.4 | 57.3 | 70.9 | 103.4 |
| Richmond | 72.1 | 72.2 | 81.9 | 74.5 | 56.2 | 66.2 | 98.2 |
| Savannah | 77.3 | 77.6 | 84.1 | 79.8 | 57.4 | 67.4 | 100.7 |
| Washington, D. C | 79.6 | 79.6 | 85.8 | 81.8 | 62.2 | 71.8 | 100.0 |
| **East South Central** | **72.9** | **73.0** | **83.2** | **74.2** | **56.8** | **66.0** | **101.4** |
| Birmingham | 67.8 | 68.4 | 79.6 | 70.0 | 54.1 | 63.6 | 98.3 |
| Louisville | 82.9 | 82.6 | 91.3 | 82.3 | 62.0 | 69.8 | 108.3 |
| Memphis | 75.6 | 74.9 | 84.4 | 77.1 | 57.4 | 68.1 | 100.7 |
| Mobile | 74.2 | 75.1 | 81.7 | 74.5 | 57.7 | 66.8 | 99.3 |
| **West South Central** | **77.5** | **77.2** | **84.0** | **77.2** | **58.7** | **67.8** | **101.0** |
| Dallas | 74.7 | 73.6 | 82.7 | 75.2 | 58.1 | 68.0 | 102.3 |
| Houston | 76.8 | 77.5 | 83.4 | 76.4 | 58.0 | 63.9 | 98.4 |
| Little Rock | 75.3 | 73.9 | 85.5 | 76.7 | 54.9 | 63.2 | 101.2 |
| New Orleans | 82.7 | 82.5 | 76.4 | 81.1 | 61.5 | 74.1 | 102.6 |
| **Mountain** | **81.8** | **81.1** | **91.7** | **82.8** | **60.7** | **69.0** | **97.8** |
| Butte | 77.2 | 77.6 | 84.0 | 77.8 | 58.0 | 66.9 | 98.1 |
| Denver | 84.7 | 84.0 | 94.5 | 85.1 | 63.3 | 71.0 | 98.3 |
| Salt Lake City | 77.8 | 77.0 | 88.6 | 80.3 | 57.2 | 66.4 | 96.7 |
| **Pacific** | **77.3** | **76.7** | **85.3** | **77.0** | **61.9** | **70.0** | **98.9** |
| Los Angeles | 73.0 | 71.5 | 82.3 | 72.2 | 58.3 | 64.4 | 97.2 |
| Portland, Oreg | 80.7 | 80.3 | 90.2 | 80.3 | 59.6 | 69.6 | 98.2 |
| San Francisco | 80.7 | 81.1 | 86.6 | 80.9 | 66.7 | 76.0 | 101.3 |
| Seattle | 80.0 | 79.1 | 88.4 | 79.8 | 62.4 | 71.9 | 98.1 |

The Bureau of Labor Statistics collects prices in seven cities that cannot be included in the food-cost indexes, since no prices are available for the 1923–25 base period. These cities were selected from areas which were not adequately represented by the 51 cities in the current food-cost indexes.

Average prices for each of these cities for which data were available have been released since June 1935. Consumption weights have been provided for these cities, making it possible to measure changes in food costs from one period to another. Percentage changes in food costs between March and April 1938 are shown in table 4 for six of these seven cities.

TABLE 4.—*Percentage Changes in Retail Food Costs for Specified Cities, April 1938, Compared with March 1938*

| Region and city | Percentage change Apr. 12, 1938, compared with Mar. 15, 1938 | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | All foods | Cereals and bakery products | Meats | Dairy products | Eggs | Fruits and vegetables | Beverages and chocolate | Fats and oils | Sugar and sweets |
| West North Central: | | | | | | | | | |
| Cedar Rapids | +2.1 | 0 | +3.7 | −0.8 | −1.7 | +6.6 | 0 | −0.6 | −0.7 |
| Sioux Falls | −.3 | −1.5 | +1.2 | −3.4 | −6.8 | +4.0 | +.2 | −2.9 | −1.5 |
| Wichita | −.3 | −7.4 | +3.0 | −3.7 | −9.8 | +8.4 | −.5 | −2.8 | −1.1 |
| South Atlantic: Winston-Salem | −.5 | −.4 | +.4 | −.5 | +2.8 | −2.0 | −.8 | +.5 | −1.0 |
| East South Central: Jackson | +1.9 | 0 | +4.3 | −.6 | +1.6 | +3.0 | −.1 | +3.3 | +3.0 |
| West South Central: El Paso | +.8 | −.7 | +3.3 | −2.8 | −1.1 | +4.0 | 0 | +.4 | +1.0 |

# COAL

## *Prices in March 1938*

RETAIL prices of both anthracite and bituminous coal advanced during the quarter ended March 15, 1938. This is contrary to the usual price movement at that season. The average price of bituminous rose 1.0 percent and was 2.7 percent higher than for the corresponding period in 1937. The quarterly increase was relatively unimportant for Pennsylvania anthracite. Buckwheat rose the most, 0.6 percent. Anthracite prices, however, show a marked change over a year ago. Decreases were reported for stove, 5.1 percent; chestnut, 4.4 percent; and pea, 5.8 percent. Conversely, the price of buckwheat increased 3.5 percent during the same yearly interval.

The current index for bituminous, 91.0, was higher than for any March since 1930. The indexes for anthracite stood at 79.3 for stove size and 80.5 for chestnut, the lowest March levels reached for these coals during the past 10 years. These coal price indexes are compared with the average for the period from October 1922 through September 1925 as 100.

Average retail prices of bituminous coal in 38 cities and Pennsylvania anthracite in 25 cities of the United States are presented in table 5 for March 1938 and for December and March 1937.

TABLE 5.—*Average Retail Prices of Coal in Large Cities Combined, March 1938 and December and March 1937*

| Article | Average retail price per ton of 2,000 pounds | | | Index of retail prices (October 1922–September 1925=100) | | | Percentage change, Mar. 15, 1938, compared with— | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 1938 | 1937 | | 1938 | 1937 | | 1937 | |
| | Mar. 15 [1] | Dec. 15 | Mar. 15 | Mar. 15 [1] | Dec. 15 | Mar. 15 | Dec. 15 | Mar. 15 |
| Bituminous coal (38 cities), old series [2] | $8.83 | $8.72 | $8.61 | 91.0 | 90.1 | 88.6 | +1.0 | +2.7 |
| Pennsylvania anthracite (25 cities), new series: [3] | | | | | | | | |
| Stove | 11.15 | 11.13 | 11.76 | 79.3 | 79.1 | 83.5 | +.2 | −5.1 |
| Chestnut | 11.31 | 11.28 | 11.84 | 80.5 | 80.3 | 84.3 | +.3 | −4.4 |
| Pea | 9.28 | 9.28 | 9.85 | ------ | ------ | ------ | +.1 | −5.8 |
| Buckwheat | 7.82 | 7.77 | 7.55 | ------ | ------ | ------ | +.6 | +3.5 |

[1] Preliminary.
[2] Unweighted average. Weighted composite prices are under construction.
[3] Weighted on the basis of the distribution by rail or rail and tidewater to each city during the 12-month period from Aug. 1, 1935, to July 31, 1936.

## *Revision of Coal Price Series*

The Bureau of Labor Statistics has for some time been engaged in revising its method of collecting, classifying, and publishing coal prices, in order that this reporting service may be more representative

of the coal market and more useful to those interested in the coal price series. The coverage was thoroughly reviewed. The number of price quotations was increased about one-third. This provided a more representative sample for both Pennsylvania anthracite and bituminous coal. Completed portions of this program have appeared in several issues of Retail Prices as indicated below.

*Anthracite.*—The number of cities included in the anthracite series remained unchanged, as did the form of presenting the individual city prices. The first result of the revision was the use of ratio weights for combining the city prices into composite prices, by sizes. The weights were computed from city sales distribution data. This revision was discussed in Retail Prices for October 1936.

Prior to 1937, prices were published for stove and chestnut sizes only. Prices of pea-size anthracite, which had been reported for many years, were first published in January 1937, and in April prices of buckwheat were introduced. These prices were added to the series because of the increased use of smaller and less expensive sizes for household use. The weights used in computing average prices of these sizes appeared in the issue for July 1937. That issue also contained indexes of seasonal variation both for retail sales and for retail prices.

A revised series of index numbers for Pennsylvania anthracite was presented in May 1937. The weighted average prices of stove and chestnut sizes were used for these indexes and the base was changed from the average for the year 1913 to the average for the period from October 1922 to September 1925, inclusive.

*Bituminous coal.*—The revision of the bituminous coal price series involved a number of changes. Prices of bituminous coal are now published for 9 additional cities, all in the New England and Middle Atlantic areas, which brings the total to 47 cities. A reclassification of these prices enabled the Bureau to publish average city prices by kinds and sizes of coal. The low volatile series has been continued. Revision has provided for the segregation of the Appalachian high volatile from the western high volatile. The form of the city price table has been so modified that prices of low volatile and of eastern and western high volatile may be studied separately. Weighted average prices for cities combined are in preparation.

The new series of average prices by cities was released in mimeographed form, with prices as of March 1937, and has been so released at each subsequent quarterly pricing period. It has now been adopted as a permanent part of the Bureau's price reporting service, and beginning in this issue, will appear quarterly in Retail Prices.

## *Details by Regions and Cities*

*Bituminous coal.*—Bituminous coal prices advanced moderately between December 1937 and March 1938 in 19 of the 47 cities included in the new series. For low-volatile coals, advances averaging 10 cents or more per ton were reported for 8 of 28 cities reporting for these coals. Increases were greatest in Minneapolis and St. Paul. Reductions of from 10 to 20 cents were reported for some sizes in Baltimore and Omaha. Prices of high volatile, eastern, are received from 27 cities, the majority of which reported advances. The greatest increases were reported for Detroit and Charleston. In New Orleans, prices of all sizes were lower. For high volatile, western, price movements reported for 20 cities were conflicting. Indianapolis showed the largest increases and Peoria the largest decrease. Average retail prices of bituminous coal by kinds and sizes are shown in table 6 for each of 47 cities.

TABLE 6.—*Average Retail Prices of Bituminous Coal per Ton of 2,000 Pounds, by Cities and Grades, March 1938 and December and March 1937*

[New series]

LOW VOLATILE

| Region, city, and size of coal | 1938 | 1937 [1] | |
|---|---|---|---|
| | Mar. 15 [2] | Dec. 15 | Mar. 15 |
| New England: | | | |
| Boston: | | | |
| Stoker | $7.62 | $7.68 | $6.77 |
| Run of mine | 9.15 | 9.19 | 9.24 |
| Fall River: | | | |
| Egg | 11.50 | 11.50 | 11.50 |
| Stoker | 7.65 | 7.65 | 7.25 |
| Run of mine | 8.75 | 8.80 | 8.80 |
| Manchester: | | | |
| Run of mine | 10.50 | 10.50 | 10.00 |
| Portland, Maine: | | | |
| Egg | 11.00 | [3] | 11.17 |
| Stoker | 8.41 | 8.20 | 8.20 |
| Run of mine | 8.65 | 8.50 | 8.50 |
| Providence: | | | |
| Run of mine | 8.08 | 8.38 | 8.33 |
| Middle Atlantic: | | | |
| Buffalo: | | | |
| Egg | 7.65 | 8.03 | 7.92 |
| Run of mine | 6.23 | 6.16 | [3] |
| Newark: | | | |
| Nut | 9.34 | 9.33 | 9.33 |
| New York: [4] | | | |
| Stoker | 7.44 | 7.31 | 7.16 |
| Run of mine | 7.39 | 7.43 | 7.05 |
| East North Central: | | | |
| Chicago: [4] | | | |
| Lump | 11.48 | 11.52 | 11.67 |
| Egg | 11.55 | 11.60 | 11.58 |
| Nut | 11.12 | 11.14 | 11.13 |
| Stoker | 8.35 | 8.33 | 8.85 |
| Run of mine | 8.80 | 8.81 | 8.70 |
| Cincinnati: [5] | | | |
| Lump | 8.50 | 8.50 | 8.61 |
| Egg | 8.50 | 8.50 | 8.67 |
| Nut | 8.20 | 8.24 | 8.32 |
| Stoker | 6.22 | 6.14 | 5.80 |
| Run of mine | 6.88 | 6.76 | 7.21 |
| Cleveland: [5] | | | |
| Lump | 9.34 | 9.29 | 8.99 |
| Egg | 9.44 | 9.35 | 9.31 |
| Stove | 9.43 | 9.11 | [3] |
| Stoker | 7.98 | 7.65 | 7.61 |
| Run of mine | 7.92 | 7.92 | 7.69 |
| East North Central—Continued. | | | |
| Columbus: [5] | | | |
| Lump | $8.24 | $8.18 | $7.79 |
| Detroit: [5] | | | |
| Lump | 9.23 | 9.01 | 8.89 |
| Egg | 9.23 | 9.01 | 8.76 |
| Nut | 7.85 | 7.55 | 7.40 |
| Stoker | 7.62 | 7.57 | 7.05 |
| Run of mine | 7.73 | 7.56 | 7.51 |
| Indianapolis: | | | |
| Lump | 8.56 | 8.25 | 8.25 |
| Egg | 8.64 | 8.35 | 8.23 |
| Nut | 8.13 | 7.80 | 7.56 |
| Stoker | 7.25 | 6.90 | 6.85 |
| Run of mine | 7.50 | 7.35 | 7.25 |
| Milwaukee: | | | |
| Lump | 12.25 | 12.25 | 12.00 |
| Egg | 12.25 | 12.25 | 12.00 |
| Stove | 11.75 | 11.75 | 11.50 |
| Stoker | 9.04 | 9.01 | [3] |
| Run of mine | 9.47 | 9.15 | 9.25 |
| West North Central: | | | |
| Kansas City: [6] | | | |
| Lump | 10.27 | 10.35 | 9.61 |
| Egg | 10.15 | 10.15 | 9.07 |
| Minneapolis: | | | |
| Lump | 13.65 | 13.18 | 14.05 |
| Egg | 13.80 | 13.40 | 14.20 |
| Stove | 13.45 | 13.05 | 13.90 |
| Stoker | 9.05 | 8.95 | 9.61 |
| Run of mine | 11.35 | 11.11 | 11.18 |
| Omaha: | | | |
| Lump | 11.25 | 11.40 | 10.38 |
| Egg | 11.06 | 11.25 | 10.63 |
| Nut | 10.33 | 10.33 | 9.75 |
| St. Louis: [6] | | | |
| Egg | 9.70 | 9.57 | 9.17 |
| St. Paul: | | | |
| Lump | 13.65 | 13.19 | 14.05 |
| Egg | 13.80 | 13.40 | 14.20 |
| Stove | 13.45 | 13.05 | 13.90 |
| Stoker | 9.05 | 8.95 | 9.48 |
| Run of mine | 11.35 | 11.11 | 11.08 |

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 6.—*Average Retail Prices of Bituminous Coal per Ton of 2,000 Pounds, by Cities and Grades, March 1938 and December and March 1937*—Continued

LOW VOLATILE—Continued

| Region, city, and size of coal | 1938 | 1937 [1] | | Region, city, and size of coal | 1938 | 1937 [1] | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Mar. 15 [2] | Dec. 15 | Mar. 15 | | Mar. 15 [2] | Dec. 15 | Mar. 15 |
| South Atlantic: | | | | South Atlantic—Contd. | | | |
| Baltimore: | | | | Richmond—Contd. | | | |
| Lump | $8.42 | $8.55 | (3) | Egg | $9.75 | $9.50 | $9.28 |
| Egg | 8.96 | 8.74 | $9.11 | Stove | 9.55 | 9.30 | 9.00 |
| Stoker | 6.52 | 6.67 | 6.95 | Stoker | 7.79 | 7.42 | 7.45 |
| Run of mine | 7.11 | 6.94 | 7.08 | Run of mine | 7.85 | 7.63 | 7.40 |
| Charleston, S. C.: | | | | Washington, D. C.: [7] | | | |
| Lump | 10.25 | 10.25 | 10.25 | Egg | 10.83 | 10.83 | 10.74 |
| Run of mine | 8.25 | 8.25 | 8.25 | Stove | 10.69 | 10.68 | 10.65 |
| Jacksonville: | | | | Stoker | 7.52 | 7.47 | 7.21 |
| Egg | 13.00 | (3) | 12.00 | Run of mine | 8.22 | 8.18 | 8.00 |
| Norfolk: | | | | East South Central: | | | |
| Lump | 9.50 | 9.50 | 9.50 | Louisville: | | | |
| Egg | 9.50 | 9.50 | 9.50 | Lump | 8.21 | 8.21 | 8.00 |
| Stove | 9.50 | 9.50 | 9.50 | Egg | 8.31 | 8.31 | 8.10 |
| Stoker | 8.00 | 8.00 | 7.50 | West South Central: | | | |
| Run of mine | 8.00 | 8.00 | 7.50 | Little Rock: [4] | | | |
| Richmond: | | | | Lump | 8.93 | 8.71 | 8.55 |
| Lump | 10.00 | 9.92 | (3) | | | | |

HIGH VOLATILE, EASTERN (APPALACHIAN DISTRICT)

| | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Middle Atlantic: | | | | East North Central—Continued. | | | |
| Buffalo: | | | | Springfield, Ill.: [5] | | | |
| Lump | $5.91 | $5.99 | $5.68 | Lump | $9.40 | $9.40 | $9.27 |
| Egg | 5.91 | 5.99 | 6.09 | West North Central: | | | |
| Nut | 5.70 | 5.84 | 5.82 | Minneapolis: | | | |
| Stoker | 5.70 | 5.90 | 5.58 | Lump | 11.25 | 11.15 | 11.30 |
| Pittsburgh: | | | | Egg | 10.88 | 10.81 | 11.24 |
| Lump | 5.23 | 4.93 | 4.75 | Stove | 10.62 | 10.51 | 10.78 |
| Egg | 4.82 | 4.66 | 4.48 | Stoker | 9.07 | 8.80 | 8.36 |
| Nut | 4.54 | 4.35 | 4.33 | St. Paul: | | | |
| Stoker | 4.82 | 4.64 | 4.60 | Lump | 11.28 | 11.21 | 11.36 |
| Rochester: | | | | Egg | 10.96 | 10.90 | 11.18 |
| Lump | 6.25 | 6.25 | (3) | Stove | 10.69 | 10.59 | 10.89 |
| Egg | 6.25 | 6.25 | (3) | Stoker | 9.13 | 8.84 | 8.40 |
| Nut | 6.26 | 6.27 | (3) | South Atlantic: | | | |
| East North Central: | | | | Atlanta: | | | |
| Chicago: [5] | | | | Lump | 7.75 | 7.75 | 7.50 |
| Lump | 10.05 | 10.08 | 10.23 | Egg | 7.50 | 7.50 | 7.25 |
| Egg | 9.69 | 9.72 | 9.94 | Nut | 7.50 | 7.50 | 7.25 |
| Nut | 9.26 | 9.42 | 9.67 | Stoker | 6.63 | 6.68 | (3) |
| Stoker | 8.50 | 8.65 | 7.83 | Baltimore: | | | |
| Cincinnati: [5] | | | | Egg | 7.08 | 7.04 | 7.29 |
| Lump | 6.75 | 6.54 | 6.70 | Nut | 6.90 | 7.00 | 7.08 |
| Egg | 6.72 | 6.55 | 6.61 | Stoker | 6.75 | (3) | 7.25 |
| Nut | 6.23 | 6.27 | (3) | Charleston, S. C.: | | | |
| Stoker | 6.05 | 5.96 | 5.61 | Lump | 9.75 | 9.25 | 9.25 |
| Cleveland: [5] | | | | Egg | 9.50 | 9.00 | 9.00 |
| Lump | 7.68 | 7.51 | 7.42 | Jacksonville: | | | |
| Egg | 7.27 | 7.04 | 7.27 | Lump | 11.33 | 11.00 | 11.17 |
| Stoker | 7.45 | 7.23 | 6.98 | Stoker | 7.50 | 7.50 | 6.92 |
| Columbus: [5] | | | | Norfolk: | | | |
| Lump | 6.65 | 6.52 | 6.18 | Lump | 7.50 | 7.50 | 7.50 |
| Egg | 6.27 | 6.06 | 6.07 | Egg | 7.50 | 7.50 | 7.50 |
| Stoker | 6.05 | 5.66 | 5.56 | Nut | 7.50 | 7.50 | 7.50 |
| Detroit: [5] | | | | Stoker | 8.00 | 8.00 | 7.50 |
| Lump | 7.82 | 7.32 | 7.11 | Richmond: | | | |
| Egg | 7.34 | 6.86 | 6.91 | Lump | 8.95 | 8.75 | 8.75 |
| Nut | 7.37 | 6.55 | 6.83 | Egg | 8.07 | 7.82 | 7.65 |
| Stoker | 7.22 | 6.61 | 6.42 | Nut | 7.71 | 7.67 | 7.23 |
| Indianapolis: | | | | Stoker | 7.45 | 7.30 | 6.94 |
| Lump | 7.76 | 7.33 | 7.09 | Savannah: [5] | | | |
| Egg | 7.21 | 6.93 | 6.58 | Lump | 10.25 | 10.00 | 9.44 |
| Stoker | 7.13 | 7.00 | 6.72 | Egg | 9.92 | 9.83 | 8.58 |
| Milwaukee: | | | | Nut | 7.88 | 7.88 | 8.00 |
| Lump | 9.12 | 9.07 | 8.95 | Stoker | 7.25 | 7.50 | 7.00 |
| Egg | 8.80 | 8.78 | 8.75 | Washington, D. C.: [7] | | | |
| Nut | 8.71 | 8.68 | 8.60 | Lump | 8.79 | 8.79 | 8.51 |
| Stoker | 8.69 | 8.64 | 8.17 | Egg | 8.77 | 8.74 | 8.50 |
| Peoria: [5] | | | | Nut | 8.55 | 8.49 | 8.27 |
| Lump | 8.94 | 9.07 | 8.83 | | | | |
| Egg | 8.57 | 8.82 | 8.51 | | | | |

See footnotes at end of table.

**TABLE 6.—*Average Retail Prices of Bituminous Coal per Ton of 2,000 Pounds, by Cities and Grades, March 1938 and December and March 1937*—Continued**

**HIGH VOLATILE, EASTERN—Continued**

| Region, city, and size of coal | 1938 | 1937 [1] | |
|---|---|---|---|
| | Mar. 15 [2] | Dec. 15 | Mar. 15 |
| East South Central: | | | |
| Birmingham: [4] | | | |
| Lump | $6.88 | $6.75 | $6.94 |
| Egg | 6.84 | 6.70 | 6.89 |
| Nut | 6.48 | 6.32 | 6.41 |
| Stoker | 6.15 | 6.05 | 5.82 |
| Louisville: | | | |
| Lump | 6.55 | 6.27 | 6.00 |
| Egg | 6.05 | 5.81 | 5.77 |
| Nut | 5.96 | 5.79 | 5.69 |
| Stoker | 5.98 | 5.75 | 5.50 |
| Memphis: | | | |
| Lump | 8.11 | 8.14 | 8.07 |
| Egg | 8.08 | 8.08 | 8.08 |
| Stoker | 6.75 | 6.75 | 6.75 |
| East South Central—Continued. | | | |
| Mobile: [4] | | | |
| Lump | $9.16 | $9.18 | $9.23 |
| Egg | 9.49 | 9.69 | [3] |
| Nut | 9.27 | 9.08 | [3] |
| Stoker | 7.14 | 7.14 | 6.89 |
| West South Central: | | | |
| New Orleans: [5] | | | |
| Lump | 10.59 | 10.81 | 11.17 |
| Egg | 10.92 | 11.15 | 11.44 |
| Nut | 11.13 | 11.27 | 11.44 |
| Stoker | 6.63 | 6.76 | 5.98 |

**HIGH VOLATILE, WESTERN**

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| East North Central: | | | |
| Chicago: [5] | | | |
| Lump | $8.45 | $8.83 | $8.76 |
| Egg | 8.38 | 8.71 | 8.65 |
| Nut | 8.36 | 8.52 | 8.69 |
| Stoker | 7.02 | 7.18 | 7.25 |
| Indianapolis: | | | |
| Lump | 5.70 | 5.10 | 5.16 |
| Egg | 5.25 | 4.90 | 4.75 |
| Stoker | 5.58 | 5.38 | 5.18 |
| Peoria: [5] | | | |
| Lump | 4.51 | 5.28 | 4.51 |
| Egg | 4.46 | 4.72 | 4.51 |
| Stoker | 4.25 | 4.29 | 4.00 |
| Springfield, Ill.: [5] | | | |
| Lump | 4.83 | 4.89 | 4.07 |
| Egg | 4.96 | 5.00 | 3.86 |
| Nut | 4.47 | 4.53 | 3.71 |
| Stoker | 4.37 | 4.44 | 3.34 |
| West North Central: | | | |
| Kansas City: [5] | | | |
| Lump | 6.25 | 6.25 | 6.04 |
| Nut | 6.01 | 6.19 | 5.80 |
| Stoker | 5.50 | 5.43 | 4.69 |
| Minneapolis: | | | |
| Lump | 10.10 | 10.10 | 10.10 |
| Egg | 9.79 | 9.81 | 9.96 |
| Nut | 9.55 | 9.55 | 9.55 |
| Stoker | 8.09 | 7.90 | 7.35 |
| Omaha: | | | |
| Lump | 9.50 | 9.36 | 8.50 |
| Egg | 9.14 | 9.14 | 8.28 |
| Nut | 8.83 | 8.88 | 7.92 |
| Stoker | 7.54 | 7.68 | 6.92 |
| St. Louis: [6] | | | |
| Lump | 5.64 | 5.78 | 5.66 |
| Egg | 5.73 | 5.73 | 6.06 |
| Nut | 5.79 | 5.65 | 5.98 |
| Stoker | 5.49 | 5.30 | 5.48 |
| St. Paul: | | | |
| Lump | 10.10 | 10.10 | 10.17 |
| Egg | 9.63 | 9.63 | 10.01 |
| Nut | 9.55 | 9.55 | 9.55 |
| Stoker | 8.08 | 7.90 | 7.85 |
| East South Central: | | | |
| Louisville: | | | |
| Lump | 5.39 | 5.21 | 4.95 |
| Egg | 4.94 | 4.75 | [3] |
| Nut | 4.86 | 4.67 | 4.38 |
| Stoker | 5.13 | 4.93 | 4.50 |
| East South Central—Continued. | | | |
| Memphis: | | | |
| Lump | $6.75 | $6.75 | $6.75 |
| Egg | 6.75 | 6.75 | 6.67 |
| Nut | 6.60 | 6.50 | 6.50 |
| Stoker | 5.75 | 5.75 | [3] |
| West South Central: | | | |
| Dallas: | | | |
| Lump | 10.63 | 10.63 | 10.63 |
| Nut | 9.50 | 9.63 | 9.50 |
| Houston: | | | |
| Lump | 12.25 | 11.88 | 11.50 |
| Nut | 9.75 | 9.50 | 9.25 |
| Mountain: | | | |
| Butte: | | | |
| Lump | 11.75 | 11.75 | 11.44 |
| Egg | 11.00 | 11.00 | [3] |
| Nut | 10.75 | 10.75 | 10.25 |
| Denver: [4] | | | |
| Lump | 8.20 | 7.86 | 7.48 |
| Egg | 8.18 | 7.87 | 7.46 |
| Nut | 7.34 | 7.42 | 7.07 |
| Stoker | 5.36 | 5.12 | 4.78 |
| Salt Lake City: [4] | | | |
| Lump | 7.62 | 7.62 | 7.13 |
| Stove | 7.40 | 7.40 | 7.01 |
| Nut | 6.89 | 6.89 | 6.34 |
| Stoker | 5.68 | 5.68 | 5.24 |
| Pacific: | | | |
| Los Angeles: [5] | | | |
| Lump | 16.83 | 16.90 | 16.66 |
| Stove | 16.48 | 16.48 | 15.97 |
| Nut | 15.45 | [3] | [3] |
| Portland, Oreg.: | | | |
| Lump | 13.80 | 13.80 | 13.30 |
| Stove | 13.85 | [3] | [3] |
| Nut | 12.65 | 12.65 | 12.10 |
| Stoker | 10.38 | 10.38 | 9.16 |
| San Francisco: [5] | | | |
| Lump | 17.51 | 17.51 | 17.51 |
| Stove | 16.48 | 16.48 | 16.48 |
| Nut | 13.39 | 13.39 | [3] |
| Stoker | 11.23 | 11.33 | 10.82 |
| Seattle: [4] | | | |
| Lump | 11.42 | 11.39 | 11.03 |
| Egg | 11.67 | 11.37 | 10.76 |
| Nut | 10.11 | 9.86 | 9.75 |
| Stoker | 8.45 | 8.18 | 7.46 |

[1] Revised subsequent to mimeographed release.
[2] Preliminary.
[3] Insufficient data.
[4] Prices include 2-percent sales tax.
[5] Prices include 3-percent sales tax.
[6] Prices include 2-percent sales tax for March 1938 and December 1937 and 1-percent for March 1937.
[7] Prices on ton of 2,240 pounds.
[8] Prices include municipal weighing charge of 10 cents per ton.
[9] Prices include 4-percent sales tax.

*Anthracite.*—The price of Pennsylvania anthracite remained almost unchanged between December 1937 and March 1938. In Portland, Maine, and in Richmond there was an increase of 25 cents per ton which was general to all sizes. In other cities the changes were even less important. Five cities report prices on other anthracite. These, too, showed relatively little price change with the exception of Little Rock, where there was a decrease of 76 cents per ton. Average retail prices of the various sizes of Pennsylvania anthracite in each of 25 cities are shown in table 7 for March 1938 and for March and December 1937. Prices of other anthracite are shown in the same table for five western cities.

TABLE 7.—*Average Retail Prices of Anthracite per Ton of 2,000 Pounds, by Cities, March 1938 and December and March 1937*

PENNSYLVANIA ANTHRACITE

| Region, city, and size of coal | 1938 | 1937 | |
|---|---|---|---|
| | Mar. 15 [1] | Dec. 15 | Mar. 15 |
| New England: | | | |
| Boston: | | | |
| Stove | $12.75 | $12.72 | $13.25 |
| Chestnut | 12.75 | 12.72 | 13.25 |
| Pea | 11.50 | 11.42 | 11.45 |
| Buckwheat | 9.75 | 9.75 | 9.65 |
| Bridgeport: | | | |
| Stove | 12.10 | 12.10 | 12.50 |
| Chestnut | 12.10 | 12.10 | 12.50 |
| Pea | 11.00 | 11.10 | 11.00 |
| Buckwheat | 9.00 | 9.00 | 9.00 |
| Fall River: | | | |
| Stove | 14.00 | 14.00 | 14.00 |
| Chestnut | 13.75 | 13.75 | 13.75 |
| Pea | 11.75 | 11.75 | 11.00 |
| Buckwheat | 10.00 | 10.00 | 10.25 |
| Manchester: | | | |
| Stove | 14.19 | 14.19 | 14.33 |
| Chestnut | 14.19 | 14.19 | 14.33 |
| Pea | 13.00 | 12.88 | 12.50 |
| Buckwheat | 10.75 | 10.69 | 10.50 |
| New Haven: | | | |
| Stove | 13.00 | 13.00 | 13.50 |
| Chestnut | 13.00 | 13.00 | 13.50 |
| Pea | 11.50 | 11.50 | 11.50 |
| Buckwheat | 9.43 | 9.50 | 9.08 |
| Portland, Maine: | | | |
| Stove | 13.50 | 13.25 | 14.00 |
| Chestnut | 13.50 | 13.25 | 14.00 |
| Pea | 12.25 | 12.00 | 12.50 |
| Buckwheat | 10.50 | 10.50 | 10.75 |
| Providence: | | | |
| Stove | 13.38 | 13.38 | 14.44 |
| Chestnut | 13.38 | 13.38 | 14.44 |
| Pea | 11.98 | 11.98 | 12.19 |
| Buckwheat | 10.00 | 10.00 | 9.75 |
| Middle Atlantic: | | | |
| Buffalo: | | | |
| Stove | 11.95 | 11.95 | 12.00 |
| Chestnut | 11.95 | 11.95 | 12.00 |
| Pea | 10.10 | 10.10 | 10.08 |
| Buckwheat | 8.35 | 8.35 | 8.25 |
| Newark: | | | |
| Stove | 11.25 | 11.25 | 11.75 |
| Chestnut | 11.25 | 11.25 | 11.75 |
| Pea | 10.00 | 10.00 | 10.25 |
| Buckwheat | 8.41 | 8.44 | 8.20 |
| New York: [2] | | | |
| Stove | 11.00 | 11.01 | 11.88 |
| Chestnut | 11.00 | 11.01 | 11.83 |
| Pea | 9.34 | 9.36 | 10.05 |
| Buckwheat | 7.75 | 7.71 | 7.42 |
| Middle Atlantic—Contd. | | | |
| Philadelphia: [3] | | | |
| Stove | $10.25 | $10.11 | $10.92 |
| Chestnut | 10.25 | 10.11 | 10.92 |
| Pea | 8.67 | 8.59 | 9.33 |
| Buckwheat | 7.79 | 7.66 | 7.83 |
| Pittsburgh: | | | |
| Stove | 12.63 | 12.63 | 12.88 |
| Chestnut | 12.69 | 12.69 | 12.88 |
| Rochester: | | | |
| Stove | 11.93 | 11.93 | 11.68 |
| Chestnut | 11.93 | 11.93 | 11.68 |
| Pea | 10.32 | 10.32 | 9.99 |
| Buckwheat | 8.41 | 8.41 | 8.19 |
| Scranton: | | | |
| Stove | 7.88 | 7.88 | 7.56 |
| Chestnut | 7.88 | 7.88 | 7.56 |
| Pea | 6.44 | 6.44 | 6.28 |
| Buckwheat | 5.00 | 5.00 | 4.75 |
| East North Central: | | | |
| Chicago: [4] | | | |
| Stove | 15.07 | 15.05 | 15.29 |
| Chestnut | 15.07 | 15.05 | 15.25 |
| Pea | 13.65 | 13.63 | 13.96 |
| Buckwheat | 12.05 | 12.05 | 11.50 |
| Cleveland: [4] | | | |
| Stove | 13.65 | 13.65 | 13.65 |
| Chestnut | 13.69 | 13.69 | 13.65 |
| Detroit: [4] | | | |
| Stove | 12.45 | 12.36 | 12.40 |
| Chestnut | 12.45 | 12.36 | 12.40 |
| Pea | 11.20 | 11.07 | 10.88 |
| Milwaukee: | | | |
| Stove | 13.95 | 13.95 | 14.00 |
| Chestnut | 13.95 | 13.95 | 14.00 |
| Pea | 12.70 | 12.70 | 13.00 |
| Buckwheat | 11.35 | 11.35 | 11.05 |
| West North Central: | | | |
| Minneapolis: | | | |
| Stove | 15.50 | 15.50 | 15.90 |
| Chestnut | 15.50 | 15.50 | 15.90 |
| Pea | 14.10 | 14.10 | 14.90 |
| Buckwheat | 12.75 | 12.75 | 12.90 |
| St. Louis: [5] | | | |
| Stove | 14.54 | 14.66 | 14.65 |
| Chestnut | 14.54 | 14.66 | 14.39 |
| Pea | 13.18 | 13.18 | 12.37 |
| St. Paul: | | | |
| Stove | 15.47 | 15.47 | 15.90 |
| Chestnut | 15.47 | 15.47 | 15.90 |
| Pea | 14.09 | 14.09 | 14.90 |
| Buckwheat | 12.76 | 12.76 | 12.90 |

See footnotes at end of table.

**TABLE 7.—*Average Retail Prices of Anthracite per Ton of 2,000 Pounds, by Cities, March 1938 and December and March 1937*—Continued**

**PENNSYLVANIA ANTHRACITE—Continued**

| Region, city, and size of coal | 1938 | 1937 | |
|---|---|---|---|
| | Mar. 15 | Dec. 15 | Mar. 15 |
| South Atlantic: | | | |
| Baltimore: | | | |
| Stove | $10.33 | $10.20 | $11.09 |
| Chestnut | 10.33 | 10.20 | 10.89 |
| Pea | 8.80 | 8.70 | 8.98 |
| Buckwheat | 8.12 | 8.10 | 7.89 |
| Norfolk: | | | |
| Stove | 13.00 | 13.00 | 13.50 |
| Chestnut | 13.00 | 13.00 | 13.50 |
| Pea | 12.00 | 10.50 | 12.00 |
| Buckwheat | 10.00 | 10.00 | 10.00 |
| South Atlantic—Contd. | | | |
| Richmond: | | | |
| Stove | $12.92 | $12.67 | $13.50 |
| Chestnut | 12.92 | 12.67 | 13.50 |
| Pea | 11.50 | 11.25 | 11.50 |
| Buckwheat | 10.25 | 10.00 | 10.25 |
| Washington, D. C.:[6] | | | |
| Stove | 12.79 | 12.79 | 13.00 |
| Chestnut | 12.79 | 12.79 | 13.00 |
| Pea | 10.99 | 10.99 | 11.20 |
| Buckwheat | 9.23 | 9.23 | 8.90 |

**OTHER ANTHRACITE**

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| West North Central: | | | |
| Kansas City:[5] | | | |
| Arkansas egg | $10.90 | $10.83 | $10.10 |
| West South Central: | | | |
| Dallas: | | | |
| Arkansas, egg | 13.25 | 13.00 | 13.25 |
| Little Rock:[3] | | | |
| Arkansas, egg | 8.93 | 9.69 | 9.00 |
| Mountain: | | | |
| Denver:[2] | | | |
| Colorado, furnace | $15.81 | $15.81 | $15.81 |
| stove | 15.81 | 15.81 | 15.81 |
| Pacific: | | | |
| San Francisco:[4] | | | |
| New Mexico, egg | 23.69 | 23.95 | 23.69 |

[1] Preliminary.
[2] Prices include 2-percent sales tax.
[3] Prices include 2-percent sales tax for March 1938.
[4] Prices include 3-percent sales tax.
[5] Prices include 2-percent sales tax for March 1938 and December 1937 and 1-percent for March 1937.
[6] Prices on ton of 2,240 pounds.

# *Wholesale Prices*

## WHOLESALE PRICES IN APRIL 1938

WHOLESALE commodity prices fell 1.3 percent during April marking the ninth consecutive month of steadily declining prices. The index dropped to 78.7 percent of the 1926 average, the lowest level reached since December 1934. The downward movement in commodity prices was quite general as all of the major commodity groups except metals and metal products shared in the decline.

Farm products have shown the widest price variation, registering decreases of 2.7 percent over the month period and 25.8 percent over the year period. Foods, hides, and leather products, and textile products showed practically the same degree of price fluctuation. These groups were about 1.5 percent lower than they were in March and from 13 to 15 percent lower than in April 1937. Fuel and lighting materials prices fell 1.2 percent during April to equal their level of a year ago. Prices of metals and metal products rose 0.3 percent from March to April and were only 0.2 percent below their year ago level. During the month, building materials prices declined 0.3 to 5.7 percent lower than they were in April 1937. Principally because of weakening prices for fats and oils, the chemicals and drugs group declined 1.5 percent to a point 10.8 percent lower than they were in April of last year. Average wholesale prices of housefurnishing goods dropped 0.5 percent from March to April and 1.9 percent from a year ago. Miscellaneous commodities prices declined 1.3 percent and when compared with the April 1937 level showed a decrease of 9.5 percent.

Largely because of weakening prices for agricultural commodities, the raw materials group decreased 2.6 percent to the lowest point reached since July 1934. The index—71.3—has declined 19.6 percent from the April 1937 level. The semimanufactured commodities group declined 0.4 percent during the month, being 15.9 percent lower than it was a year ago. Finished products prices dropped 0.8 percent during the month but were only 5.4 percent lower than they were a year ago.

According to the index for "All commodities other than farm products," nonagricultural commodities prices declined 1.0 percent in April. Industrial commodities prices, as measured by the index for "All commodities other than farm products and foods," declined 0.7

percent. Compared with their year-ago position, nonagricultural commodities prices were down 7.0 percent and industrial commodities prices dropped 5.2 percent.

A comparison of the April level of wholesale prices with March 1938 and April 1937 is shown in table 1.

TABLE 1.—*Comparison of Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices for April 1938 with March 1938 and April 1937*

[1926=100]

| Commodity group | April 1938 | March 1938 | Change from a month ago | April 1937 | Change from a year ago |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | *Percent* | | *Percent* |
| All commodities | 78.7 | 79.7 | −1.3 | 88.0 | −10.6 |
| Farm products | 68.4 | 70.3 | −2.7 | 92.2 | −25.8 |
| Foods | 72.3 | 73.5 | −1.6 | 85.5 | −15.4 |
| Hides and leather products | 92.1 | 93.6 | −1.6 | 106.3 | −13.4 |
| Textile products | 67.2 | 68.2 | −1.5 | 79.5 | −15.5 |
| Fuel and lighting materials | 76.8 | 77.7 | −1.2 | 76.8 | ---------- |
| Metals and metal products | 96.3 | 96.0 | +.3 | 96.5 | −.2 |
| Building materials | 91.2 | 91.5 | −.3 | 96.7 | −5.7 |
| Chemicals and drugs | 77.5 | 78.7 | −1.5 | 86.9 | −10.8 |
| Housefurnishing goods | 87.3 | 87.7 | −.5 | 89.0 | −1.9 |
| Miscellaneous | 73.4 | 74.4 | −1.3 | 81.1 | −9.5 |
| Raw materials | 71.3 | 73.2 | −2.6 | 88.7 | −19.6 |
| Semimanufactured articles | 75.3 | 75.6 | −.4 | 89.5 | −15.9 |
| Finished products | 82.7 | 83.4 | −.8 | 87.4 | −5.4 |
| All commodities other than farm products | 80.8 | 81.6 | −1.0 | 86.9 | −7.0 |
| All commodities other than farm products and foods | 82.0 | 82.6 | −.7 | 86.5 | −5.2 |

## *Wholesale Price Level in April*

Continuing the decline which began last August, wholesale prices decreased 1.3 percent during April, and brought the all-commodity index to 78.7 percent of the 1926 average, the lowest point reached in the past 3¼ years. The combined index, which is now composed of over 800 price series, is 10.6 percent below the April 1937 level.

The greatest group decline—2.7 percent—during the month was registered in farm products. Foods and hides and leather products decreased 1.6 percent; textile products and chemicals and drugs, 1.5 percent; miscellaneous commodities, 1.3 percent; fuel and lighting materials, 1.2 percent; housefurnishing goods, 0.5 percent; and building materials, 0.3 percent. Metals and metal products, on the other hand, advanced 0.3 percent during April.

The number of changes within each of the 10 major commodity groups, which influenced the movement of the all-commodity index in April, is shown in table 2.

Wholesale market prices of raw materials fell 2.6 percent largely as a result of weakening prices of farm products. The group index—71.3—stands at the lowest level reached in nearly 4 years. Although semimanufactured commodities prices declined 0.4 percent in April,

registering the ninth consecutive monthly decrease, the index—75.3—was higher than it was during the first half of 1936. Following the slight upward tendency in finished products prices between February and March, a decrease of 0.8 percent was recorded in April.

TABLE 2.—*Number of Items Changing in Price from March to April 1938*

| Commodity group | Increases | Decreases | No change |
|---|---|---|---|
| All commodities | 64 | 273 | 476 |
| Farm products | 21 | 41 | 5 |
| Foods | 11 | 75 | 36 |
| Hides and leather products | 1 | 11 | 29 |
| Textile products | 5 | 47 | 62 |
| Fuel and lighting materials | 5 | 11 | 8 |
| Metals and metal products | 5 | 19 | 122 |
| Building materials | 9 | 20 | 57 |
| Chemicals and drugs | 5 | 13 | 71 |
| Housefurnishing goods | 0 | 11 | 50 |
| Miscellaneous | 2 | 25 | 36 |

The large group of nonagricultural commodities declined 1.0 percent in April, according to the index for "All commodities other than farm products," and was 7.0 percent lower than in April of last year. Industrial commodities prices, as measured by the index for "All commodities other than farm products and foods," fell 0.7 percent during the month and declined 5.2 percent from April a year ago.

Decreases of 4.3 percent for the grains subgroup, 4.1 percent for livestock and poultry, and 1.3 percent for "Other farm products" caused the farm products group to decline 2.7 percent to the lowest point reached since July 1934. Sharp decreases were reported in prices for hogs and sheep, and for barley, oats, rye, wheat, lemons, hay, hops, dried beans, and fresh milk. Quotations were higher for cows, and for oranges, onions, and white potatoes. The recent reaction in farm products prices more than offset the March gain and placed the group index at 68.4. This represents a decline of 25.8 percent in farm-products prices since April 1937.

Largely because of a 6.5-percent decrease in prices of dairy products, 2.1 percent in "Other foods," and 1.4 percent in cereal products, the wholesale foods group fell 1.6 percent during the month. Pronounced decreases were reported in prices of butter, cheese, evaporated milk, powdered milk, flour, canned apricots, lamb, bacon, fresh pork, cocoa beans, coffee, copra, lard, oleo oil, pepper, and sugar. Average wholesale prices of meats rose 0.7 percent and fruits and vegetables advanced 0.5 percent. Quotations were higher for potatoes, fresh beef, and dressed poultry. The food index—72.3—was down 15.4 percent from a year ago.

The hides and leather products group index declined 1.6 percent to the lowest point reached since September 1934 largely because of declines of 9.9 percent in hide and skin prices and 1.3 percent in

leather. Average wholesale prices of shoes dropped 0.1 percent and prices of other leather manufactures such as harness, belting, gloves, and luggage were steady.

Wholesale prices of textile products fell 1.5 percent to the lowest level reached since June 1933. Woolen and worsted goods dropped 3.9 percent; cotton goods, 2.7 percent; "Other textile products," including burlap, sisal, jute, and twine, 1.5 percent; and hosiery and underwear, 0.5 percent. Raw silk, on the other hand, advanced 0.3 percent.

The index for the fuel and lighting materials group decline 1.2 percent during April to equal the level of a year ago. Wholesale prices of anthracite fell 4.2 percent, bituminous coal dropped 2.0 percent, and petroleum products, principally fuel oil, decreased 0.7 percent. Coke prices were unchanged from those reported for March. An advance was registered in gas prices.

During April, the metals and metal products group advanced 0.3 percent because of higher prices for certain agricultural implements and malleable iron castings. Lower prices for bar silver, pig tin, and pig zinc resulted in a 1.3-percent decline in the nonferrous subgroup. Quotations were lower also for scrap steel, range boilers, and radiation.

Decreases of 2.2 percent in the plumbing and heating fixtures subgroup, 1.0 percent in paint and paint materials, 0.8 percent in brick and tile, and 0.2 percent in lumber largely accounted for the decline of 0.3 percent in the building materials group index. Lower prices were reported for fire and silica brick, yellow pine lath, ethyl acetate, chinawood and linseed oils, putty, rosin, and turpentine. Prices of hollow tile were higher and structural steel remained unchanged.

Weakening prices for mixed fertilizers, fertilizer materials, and chemicals, mainly fats and oils, calcium chloride, and naphthalene flakes resulted in the index for the chemicals and drugs group dropping 1.5 percent. Average wholesale prices of drugs and pharmaceuticals were steady.

Sharp decreases in prices of bedding, including blankets, sheets, and pillow cases, and lower prices for floor covering other than carpets, together with a minor decline in prices of furniture, resulted in the housefurnishing goods group index falling 0.5 percent to 87.3.

Average wholesale prices of crude rubber decreased 13.7 percent during April. Cattle feed prices declined 7.2 percent; boxboard, 2.5 percent; and paper and pulp, 1.5 percent. Soap and cylinder oil prices also declined.

Index numbers for the groups and subgroups of commodities for March and April 1938 and for April of each of the past 7 years are shown in table 3.

TABLE 3.—*Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices, by Groups and Subgroups of Commodities*

[1926=100]

| Group and subgroup | April 1938 | March 1938 | April 1937 | April 1936 | April 1935 | April 1934 | April 1933 | April 1932 | April 1931 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **All commodities** | **78.7** | **79.7** | **88.0** | **79.7** | **80.1** | **73.3.** | **[1] 60.4** | **65.5** | **74.8** |
| **Farm products** | **68.4** | **70.3** | **92.2** | **76.9** | **80.4** | **59.6** | **44.5** | **49.2** | **70.1** |
| Grains | 66.0 | 69.0 | 119.2 | 73.9 | 87.9 | 58.8 | 44.8 | 44.5 | 59.5 |
| Livestock and poultry | 79.3 | 82.7 | 93.6 | 88.3 | 85.9 | 49.2 | 41.0 | 49.2 | 70.3 |
| Other farm products | 62.0 | 62.8 | 83.4 | 70.4 | 74.5 | 65.7 | 46.7 | 51.2 | 73.4 |
| **Foods** | **72.3** | **73.5** | **85.5** | **80.2** | **84.5** | **66.2** | **56.1** | **61.0** | **76.3** |
| Dairy products | 71.7 | 76.7 | 78.5 | 78.8 | 84.9 | 66.5 | 53.1 | 61.6 | 80.6 |
| Cereal products | 79.8 | 80.9 | 89.8 | 84.2 | 93.3 | 84.8 | 65.9 | 68.2 | 74.3 |
| Fruits and vegetables | 56.8 | 56.5 | 83.5 | 67.8 | 67.3 | 67.9 | 57.8 | 62.3 | 76.2 |
| Meats | 82.2 | 81.6 | 94.9 | 91.0 | 94.3 | 57.3 | 50.3 | 59.8 | 79.9 |
| Other foods | 64.5 | 65.9 | 77.0 | 72.4 | 76.2 | 62.1 | 56.6 | 55.8 | 69.9 |
| **Hides and leather products** | **92.1** | **93.6** | **106.3** | **94.6** | **86.3** | **88.9** | **69.4** | **75.0** | **87.5** |
| Shoes | 104.5 | 104.6 | 103.8 | 100.3 | 97.2 | 98.5 | 83.2 | 88.4 | 94.8 |
| Hides and skins | 62.6 | 69.5 | 121.4 | 90.1 | 71.2 | 76.7 | 45.8 | 40.8 | 62.0 |
| Leather | 82.2 | 83.3 | 100.7 | 84.5 | 74.9 | 78.4 | 57.2 | 67.2 | 88.4 |
| Other leather products | 102.2 | 102.2 | 102.3 | 95.4 | 84.6 | 86.7 | 77.2 | 98.0 | 101.6 |
| **Textile products** | **67.2** | **68.2** | **79.5** | **70.2** | **69.2** | **75.3** | **51.8** | **56.1** | **68.2** |
| Clothing | 84.6 | 84.6 | 86.8 | 80.8 | 78.5 | 85.7 | 61.4 | 64.9 | 76.9 |
| Cotton goods | 65.7 | 67.5 | 95.1 | 76.2 | 81.8 | 88.2 | 50.7 | 55.1 | 71.4 |
| Hosiery and underwear | 60.6 | 60.3 | 65.9 | 62.0 | 61.6 | 64.2 | 47.2 | 51.9 | 60.7 |
| Silk and rayon | 28.9 | 28.8 | 33.8 | 30.1 | 27.6 | 28.4 | 26.3 | 31.3 | 43.4 |
| Woolen and worsted goods | 77.1 | 80.2 | 93.5 | 82.2 | 73.1 | 82.0 | 53.3 | 59.7 | 69.0 |
| Other textile products | 66.0 | 67.0 | 68.8 | 67.5 | 67.5 | 78.9 | 67.5 | 68.2 | 76.2 |
| **Fuel and lighting materials** | **76.8** | **77.7** | **76.8** | **76.4** | **72.8** | **71.7** | **61.5** | **70.2** | **65.4** |
| Anthracite | 76.0 | 79.3 | 72.4 | 80.0 | 75.5 | 78.1 | 81.4 | 85.7 | 86.4 |
| Bituminous coal | 97.5 | 99.5 | 98.6 | 96.8 | 95.4 | 93.7 | 78.1 | 82.7 | 84.4 |
| Coke | 105.5 | 105.5 | 102.8 | 93.7 | 88.7 | 84.3 | 75.2 | 79.8 | 83.7 |
| Electricity | [1] | [1] | 77.1 | 82.8 | 87.8 | 88.3 | 98.3 | 103.5 | 93.7 |
| Gas | [1] | 83.4 | 80.7 | 84.8 | 88.0 | 92.2 | 97.5 | 99.1 | 96.1 |
| Petroleum products | 57.5 | 57.9 | 59.8 | 57.9 | 51.0 | 49.4 | 32.5 | 45.5 | 37.4 |
| **Metals and metal products** | **96.3** | **96.0** | **96.5** | **86.6** | **85.9** | **87.9** | **76.9** | **80.3** | **85.7** |
| Agricultural implements | 96.3 | 96.2 | 92.1 | 94.2 | 93.6 | 85.2 | 83.1 | 85.0 | 94.3 |
| Farm machinery | 97.8 | 97.7 | 95.3 | 92.3 | 91.6 | [1] | [1] | [1] | [1] |
| Iron and steel | 100.4 | 99.4 | 99.6 | 86.3 | 86.0 | 87.3 | 75.7 | 80.1 | 84.1 |
| Motor vehicles [2] | 95.6 | 95.6 | 86.9 | [1] | [1] | [1] | [1] | [1] | [1] |
| Nonferrous metals | 70.7 | 71.6 | 97.0 | 70.4 | 68.2 | 68.0 | 49.2 | 49.3 | 67.5 |
| Plumbing and heating | 77.2 | 78.9 | 78.7 | 73.8 | 67.1 | 76.2 | 59.4 | 64.4 | 86.6 |
| **Building materials** | **91.2** | **91.5** | **96.7** | **85.7** | **84.6** | **86.7** | **70.2** | **72.5** | **81.5** |
| Brick and tile | 90.4 | 91.1 | 94.9 | 89.0 | 89.7 | 90.7 | 75.0 | 78.4 | 83.9 |
| Cement | 95.5 | 95.5 | 95.5 | 95.5 | 94.9 | 89.7 | 81.8 | 75.0 | 81.0 |
| Lumber | 91.1 | 91.3 | 103.0 | 83.2 | 79.9 | 87.2 | 57.9 | 60.0 | 73.4 |
| Paint and paint materials | 81.4 | 82.2 | 83.9 | 79.3 | 79.2 | 79.8 | 68.9 | 74.7 | 81.2 |
| Plumbing and heating | 77.2 | 78.9 | 78.7 | 73.8 | 67.1 | 76.2 | 59.4 | 64.4 | 86.6 |
| Structural steel | 114.9 | 114.9 | 114.9 | 92.0 | 92.0 | 86.8 | 81.7 | 81.7 | 84.3 |
| Other building materials | 94.8 | 94.8 | 99.9 | 89.1 | 89.4 | 90.4 | 77.9 | 80.2 | 86.9 |
| **Chemicals and drugs** | **77.5** | **78.7** | **86.9** | **78.5** | **81.0** | **75.5** | **71.4** | **74.4** | **81.3** |
| Chemicals | 81.9 | 83.2 | 94.2 | 85.5 | 87.2 | 78.6 | 79.5 | 79.7 | 85.1 |
| Drugs and pharmaceuticals | 73.8 | 73.8 | 82.9 | 73.2 | 73.8 | 72.2 | 54.6 | 58.9 | 63.4 |
| Fertilizer materials | 70.1 | 71.8 | 70.7 | 64.6 | 66.0 | 68.7 | 62.9 | 70.1 | 80.6 |
| Mixed fertilizers | 69.7 | 71.6 | 72.0 | 64.5 | 72.9 | 72.7 | 60.0 | 71.1 | 83.5 |
| **Housefurnishing goods** | **87.3** | **87.7** | **89.0** | **81.5** | **80.7** | **81.6** | **71.5** | **76.3** | **87.9** |
| Furnishings | 90.9 | 91.6 | 92.1 | 85.0 | 84.2 | 83.5 | 71.7 | 75.4 | 84.2 |
| Furniture | 83.6 | 83.7 | 85.8 | 78.0 | 77.1 | 79.9 | 71.5 | 77.4 | 91.9 |
| **Miscellaneous** | **73.4** | **74.4** | **81.1** | **68.6** | **68.7** | **69.5** | **57.8** | **64.7** | **71.5** |
| Automobile tires and tubes | 57.4 | 57.4 | 56.4 | 45.0 | 46.3 | 44.6 | 37.4 | 39.2 | 46.9 |
| Cattle feed | 79.0 | 85.1 | 146.8 | 74.0 | 104.9 | 76.1 | 49.5 | 53.4 | 81.2 |
| Paper and pulp | 87.5 | 88.8 | 93.9 | 80.5 | 80.4 | 83.6 | 70.6 | 76.8 | 82.1 |
| Rubber, crude | 24.5 | 28.4 | 49.3 | 33.0 | 23.7 | 24.6 | 7.4 | 6.6 | 13.3 |
| Other miscellaneous | 81.8 | 82.1 | 85.3 | 80.6 | 79.0 | 83.2 | 72.7 | 84.5 | 89.3 |
| **Raw materials** | **71.3** | **73.2** | **88.7** | **77.0** | **77.5** | **65.1** | **50.0** | **55.5** | **68.3** |
| **Semimanufactured articles** | **75.3** | **75.6** | **89.5** | **74.5** | **72.3** | **73.9** | **57.3** | **59.6** | **71.5** |
| **Finished products** | **82.7** | **83.4** | **87.4** | **81.6** | **83.3** | **77.1** | **65.7** | **71.1** | **78.3** |
| **All commodities other than farm products** | **80.8** | **81.6** | **86.9** | **80.1** | **79.9** | **76.2** | **63.7** | **68.9** | **75.7** |
| **All commodities other than farm products and foods** | **82.0** | **82.6** | **86.5** | **78.9** | **77.2** | **75.6** | **65.3** | **70.9** | **75.9** |

[1] Data not available.
[2] Preliminary revision.

## *Index Numbers by Commodity Groups, 1926 to April 1938*

Index numbers of wholesale prices by commodity groups, by years from 1926 to 1937, inclusive, and by months from January 1937 to April 1938, inclusive, are shown in table 4.

TABLE 4.—*Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices, by Groups of Commodities*

[1926=100]

| Year and month | Farm products | Foods | Hides and leather products | Textile products | Fuel and lighting | Metals and metal products | Building materials | Chemicals and drugs | House-furnishing goods | Miscellaneous | All commodities |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| By years: | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1926 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 |
| 1927 | 99.4 | 96.7 | 107.7 | 95.6 | 88.3 | 96.3 | 94.7 | 96.8 | 97.5 | 91.0 | 95.4 |
| 1928 | 105.9 | 101.0 | 121.4 | 95.5 | 84.3 | 97.0 | 94.1 | 95.6 | 95.1 | 85.4 | 96.7 |
| 1929 | 104.9 | 99.9 | 109.1 | 90.4 | 83.0 | 100.5 | 95.4 | 94.2 | 94.3 | 82.6 | 95.3 |
| 1930 | 88.3 | 90.5 | 100.0 | 80.3 | 78.5 | 92.1 | 89.9 | 89.1 | 92.7 | 77.7 | 86.4 |
| 1931 | 64.8 | 74.6 | 86.1 | 66.3 | 67.5 | 84.5 | 79.2 | 79.3 | 84.9 | 69.8 | 73.0 |
| 1932 | 48.2 | 61.0 | 72.9 | 54.9 | 70.3 | 80.2 | 71.4 | 73.5 | 75.1 | 64.4 | 64.8 |
| 1933 | 51.4 | 60.5 | 80.9 | 64.8 | 66.3 | 79.8 | 77.0 | 72.6 | 75.8 | 62.5 | 65.9 |
| 1934 | 65.3 | 70.5 | 86.6 | 72.9 | 73.3 | 86.9 | 86.2 | 75.9 | 81.5 | 69.7 | 74.9 |
| 1935 | 78.8 | 83.7 | 89.6 | 70.9 | 73.5 | 86.4 | 85.3 | 80.5 | 80.6 | 68.3 | 80.0 |
| 1936 | 80.9 | 82.1 | 95.4 | 71.5 | 76.2 | 87.0 | 86.7 | 80.4 | 81.7 | 70.5 | 80.8 |
| 1937 | 86.4 | 85.5 | 104.6 | 76.3 | 77.6 | 95.7 | 95.2 | 83.9 | 89.7 | 77.8 | 86.3 |
| By months: | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1937: | | | | | | | | | | | |
| January | 91.3 | 87.1 | 101.7 | 77.5 | 76.6 | 90.9 | 91.3 | 87.7 | 86.5 | 76.2 | 85.9 |
| February | 91.4 | 87.0 | 102.7 | 77.5 | 76.8 | 91.7 | 93.3 | 87.8 | 87.9 | 77.3 | 86.3 |
| March | 94.1 | 87.5 | 104.2 | 78.3 | 76.2 | 96.0 | 95.9 | 87.5 | 88.4 | 79.5 | 87.8 |
| April | 92.2 | 85.5 | 106.3 | 79.5 | 76.8 | 96.5 | 96.7 | 86.9 | 89.0 | 81.1 | 88.0 |
| May | 89.8 | 84.2 | 106.7 | 78.7 | 77.2 | 95.8 | 97.2 | 84.5 | 89.3 | 80.5 | 87.4 |
| June | 88.5 | 84.7 | 106.4 | 78.2 | 77.5 | 95.9 | 96.9 | 83.6 | 89.5 | 79.4 | 87.2 |
| July | 89.3 | 86.2 | 106.7 | 78.3 | 78.1 | 96.1 | 96.7 | 83.9 | 89.7 | 79.0 | 87.9 |
| August | 86.4 | 86.7 | 108.1 | 77.1 | 78.4 | 97.0 | 96.3 | 82.2 | 91.1 | 77.3 | 87.5 |
| September | 85.9 | 88.0 | 107.6 | 75.3 | 78.7 | 97.1 | 96.2 | 81.4 | 91.1 | 77.0 | 87.4 |
| October | 80.4 | 85.5 | 106.7 | 73.5 | 78.5 | 96.4 | 95.4 | 81.2 | 91.0 | 76.2 | 85.4 |
| November | 75.7 | 83.1 | 101.4 | 71.2 | 78.2 | 96.8 | 93.7 | 80.2 | 90.4 | 75.4 | 83.3 |
| December | 72.8 | 79.8 | 97.7 | 70.1 | 78.4 | 96.3 | 92.5 | 79.5 | 89.7 | 75.0 | 81.7 |
| 1938: | | | | | | | | | | | |
| January | 71.6 | 76.3 | 96.7 | 69.7 | 78.3 | 96.6 | 91.8 | 79.6 | 88.3 | 75.2 | 80.9 |
| February | 69.8 | 73.5 | 94.7 | 68.6 | 78.5 | 96.0 | 91.1 | 79.1 | 88.0 | 74.8 | 79.8 |
| March | 70.3 | 73.5 | 93.6 | 68.2 | 77.7 | 96.0 | 91.5 | 78.7 | 87.7 | 74.4 | 79.7 |
| April | 68.4 | 72.3 | 92.1 | 67.2 | 76.8 | 96.3 | 91.2 | 77.5 | 87.3 | 73.4 | 78.7 |

The price trend since 1926 is shown in table 5 for the following groups of commodities: Raw materials, semimanufactured articles, finished products, commodities other than farm products, and commodities other than farm products and foods. The list of commodities included under the classifications "Raw materials," "Semimanufactured articles," and "Finished products" was given in the December 1937 issue of the Wholesale Price pamphlet.

TABLE 5.—*Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices, by Special Groups of Commodities*

[1926=100]

| Year and month | Raw materials | Semi-manufactured articles | Finished products | All commodities other than farm products | All commodities other than farm products and foods | Year and month | Raw materials | Semi-manufactured articles | Finished products | All commodities other than farm products | All commodities other than farm products and foods |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1926 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 1937—Continued. | | | | | |
| 1927 | 96.5 | 94.3 | 95.0 | 94.6 | 94.0 | March | 90.1 | 89.6 | 86.4 | 86.3 | 85.5 |
| 1928 | 99.1 | 94.5 | 95.9 | 94.8 | 92.9 | April | 88.7 | 89.5 | 87.4 | 86.9 | 86.5 |
| 1929 | 97.5 | 93.9 | 94.5 | 93.3 | 91.6 | May | 87.1 | 87.5 | 87.5 | 86.7 | 86.3 |
| 1930 | 84.3 | 81.8 | 88.0 | 85.9 | 85.2 | June | 86.1 | 86.8 | 87.7 | 86.8 | 86.1 |
| 1931 | 65.6 | 69.0 | 77.0 | 74.6 | 75.0 | July | 86.5 | 87.0 | 88.8 | 87.5 | 86.3 |
| 1932 | 55.1 | 59.3 | 70.3 | 68.3 | 70.2 | August | 84.8 | 86.6 | 89.0 | 87.6 | 86.1 |
| 1933 | 56.5 | 65.4 | 70.5 | 69.0 | 71.2 | September | 84.4 | 85.3 | 89.1 | 87.6 | 85.9 |
| 1934 | 68.6 | 72.8 | 78.2 | 76.9 | 78.4 | October | 80.7 | 82.5 | 88.1 | 86.4 | 85.1 |
| 1935 | 77.1 | 73.6 | 82.2 | 80.2 | 77.9 | November | 77.2 | 79.8 | 86.7 | 84.8 | 84.3 |
| | | | | | | December | 75.4 | 77.7 | 85.3 | 83.5 | 83.6 |
| 1936 | 79.9 | 75.9 | 82.0 | 80.7 | 79.6 | 1938: | | | | | |
| 1937 | 84.8 | 85.3 | 87.2 | 86.2 | 85.3 | January | 74.9 | 76.9 | 84.3 | 82.8 | 83.5 |
| 1937: | | | | | | February | 73.6 | 76.1 | 83.3 | 81.9 | 83.0 |
| January | 88.1 | 85.4 | 84.9 | 84.6 | 83.4 | March | 73.2 | 75.6 | 83.4 | 81.6 | 82.6 |
| February | 88.3 | 85.5 | 85.4 | 85.0 | 84.1 | April | 71.3 | 75.3 | 82.7 | 80.8 | 82.0 |

## *Weekly Fluctuations*

Except for a slight upward tendency toward mid-April, wholesale commodity prices followed a downward course throughout the month. Significant price declines in the farm products, foods, and textile products groups largely contributed to the downward trend.

Following a pronounced decline early in the month, farm-products prices strengthened between April 9 and April 23, but for the week period ended April 30 they declined nearly 2 percent. Foods followed much the same trend as did farm products although the changes were less sharp. Hides and leather products prices declined during the first half of April then reacted the last half of the month. Wholesale prices of textile products fell steadily throughout the 4-week period and registered a decline of 1.8 percent from March 26 to April 30. Seasonal declines in coal and fuel oil caused the fuel and lighting materials group to decline each week in April.

The metals and metal products group rose 0.4 percent from March 26 to April 30 and the building materials group advanced 1.1 percent during this period. From the last week of March to the last week of April, the chemicals and drugs group decreased 1.3 percent. House-furnishing goods and miscellaneous commodities declined 1.1 percent.

Weekly variations in the major group classifications during April are shown by the index numbers in table 6. The percentage changes from week to week are given in table 7.

TABLE 6.—*Weekly Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices by Commodity Groups, March and April 1938*

[1926=100]

| Commodity group | Apr. 30, 1938 | Apr. 23, 1938 | Apr. 16, 1938 | Apr. 9, 1938 | Apr. 2, 1938 | Mar. 26, 1938 | Mar. 19, 1938 | Mar. 12, 1938 | Mar. 5, 1938 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| All commodities | 78.3 | 78.6 | 78.6 | 78.5 | 78.8 | 79.2 | 79.5 | 79.8 | 79.8 |
| Farm products | 67.8 | 69.1 | 68.9 | 68.1 | 68.8 | 69.6 | 70.5 | 71.7 | 71.1 |
| Foods | 71.9 | 72.2 | 72.3 | 72.2 | 72.6 | 73.1 | 73.4 | 73.8 | 73.8 |
| Hides and leather products | 93.0 | 92.6 | 92.0 | 92.5 | 93.4 | 93.7 | 94.2 | 94.2 | 94.3 |
| Textile products | 66.5 | 66.7 | 67.0 | 67.0 | 67.1 | 67.7 | 67.8 | 67.8 | 67.9 |
| Fuel and lighting materials | 77.2 | 77.3 | 77.5 | 77.6 | 78.1 | 78.1 | 78.1 | 78.3 | 78.3 |
| Metals and metal products | 96.4 | 95.9 | 95.9 | 95.9 | 96.0 | 96.0 | 96.1 | 96.1 | 96.2 |
| Building materials | 91.7 | 91.0 | 91.1 | 91.2 | 90.2 | 90.7 | 90.6 | 90.6 | 90.8 |
| Chemicals and drugs | 77.1 | 77.3 | 77.5 | 77.3 | 77.6 | 78.1 | 78.4 | 78.6 | 78.9 |
| Housefurnishing goods | 88.6 | 88.7 | 88.7 | 88.7 | 89.5 | 89.6 | 89.6 | 89.6 | 89.6 |
| Miscellaneous | 73.3 | 73.3 | 73.1 | 73.1 | 73.4 | 74.1 | 74.5 | 74.5 | 74.7 |
| Raw materials | 70.6 | 71.5 | 71.3 | 70.9 | 71.6 | 72.4 | 73.1 | 73.8 | 73.7 |
| Semimanufactured articles | 75.1 | 74.6 | 74.1 | 74.5 | 74.8 | 75.0 | 75.5 | 75.6 | 76.0 |
| Finished products | 82.8 | 82.9 | 83.0 | 83.1 | 83.2 | 83.5 | 83.5 | 83.6 | 83.7 |
| All commodities other than farm products | 80.6 | 80.7 | 80.7 | 80.8 | 81.0 | 81.4 | 81.5 | 81.6 | 81.7 |
| All commodities other than farm products and foods | 82.2 | 82.1 | 82.1 | 82.2 | 82.4 | 82.7 | 82.8 | 82.9 | 82.9 |

TABLE 7.—*Weekly Changes (Percent) During April 1938, by Groups of Commodities*

| Commodity group | Percentage change from— | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Mar. 26 to Apr. 30 | Apr. 23 to Apr. 30 | Apr. 16 to Apr. 23 | Apr. 9 to Apr. 16 | Apr. 2 to Apr. 9 | Mar. 26 to Apr. 2 |
| All commodities | −1.1 | −0.4 | .0 | +0.1 | −0.4 | −0.5 |
| Farm products | −2.6 | −1.9 | +.3 | +1.2 | −1.0 | −1.1 |
| Foods | −1.6 | −.4 | −.1 | +.1 | −.6 | −.7 |
| Hides and leather products | −.7 | +.4 | +.7 | −.5 | −1.0 | −.3 |
| Textile products | −1.8 | −.3 | −.4 | .0 | −.1 | −.9 |
| Fuel and lighting materials | −1.2 | −.1 | −.3 | −.1 | −.6 | .0 |
| Metals and metal products | +.4 | +.5 | .0 | .0 | −.1 | .0 |
| Building materials | +1.1 | +.8 | −.1 | −.1 | +1.1 | −.6 |
| Chemicals and drugs | −1.3 | −.3 | −.3 | +.3 | −.4 | −.6 |
| Housefurnishing goods | −1.1 | −.1 | .0 | .0 | −.9 | −.1 |
| Miscellaneous | −1.1 | .0 | +.3 | .0 | −.4 | −.9 |
| Raw materials | −2.5 | −1.3 | +.3 | +.6 | −1.0 | −1.1 |
| Semimanufactured articles | +.1 | +.7 | +.7 | −.5 | −.4 | −.3 |
| Finished products | −.8 | −.1 | −.1 | −.1 | −.1 | −.4 |
| All commodities other than farm products | −1.0 | −.1 | .0 | −.1 | −.2 | −.5 |
| All commodities other than farm products and foods | −.6 | +.1 | .0 | −.1 | −.2 | −.4 |

## *Monthly Average Wholesale Prices and Index Numbers of Individual Commodities*

The table showing average wholesale prices and index numbers of individual commodities formerly appearing monthly in the Wholesale Price pamphlet is now published semiannually in the June and December issues. The December 1937 issue showed the data for the year 1937 and for the last 6 months of 1937. The monthly figures will be furnished currently upon request.

# *Recent Publications of Labor Interest*

## MAY 1938

### *Coal-Mining Industry*

*Technical tripartite meeting on coal-mining industry, Geneva, May 1938—report of International Labor Office.* Geneva, International Labor Office (American branch, 734 Jackson Place, NW., Washington, D. C.), 1938. In 3 parts; various paging.

Part 1 of the report covers economic conditions, part 2, social conditions, and part 3, hours of work. Data on labor costs in the mining of coal, taken from part 1, are given in this issue of the Monthly Labor Review.

*Statistics of Ohio coal mines and quarries for year ending December 31, 1936.* Columbus, Ohio, Department of Industrial Relations, Division of Labor Statistics, 1937. 53 pp.; mimeographed.

Statistics of employment, days worked, extent of use of mechanical equipment, and production.

*Statistical summary of output, and of costs of production, proceeds and profits of coal mining industry [Great Britain] for year ended December 31, 1937.* London, Mines Department, 1938. Folder. (Cmd. 5699.)

The data include number of workpeople employed and earnings per man-shift worked.

### *Consumer Problems*

*Consumers' bookshelf: A bibliography of publications on commodity buying and other consumer problems.* Washington, U. S. Agricultural Adjustment Administration, Consumers' Counsel Division, 1938. 100 pp. (Consumers' Counsel Series, Publication No. 4.)

Lists, by commodities, sources of information for the consumer.

*Consumer credit: A critical analysis of credit agencies and of the development of regulation.* Edited by Paul F. Douglass. (In Annals of American Academy of Political and Social Science, Philadelphia, March 1938, Vol. 196, pp. 1–224.)

The credit agencies analyzed include charge accounts, installment buying, licensed lenders, personal loan departments of banks, industrial banks, pawn shops, credit unions, Government agencies of credit, and borrowing on life insurance policies.

### *Cooperative Movement*

*Agricultural economics—a selected list of references.* Compiled by Mary G. Lacy. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Agricultural Economics, January 1938. 26 pp. (Agricultural Economics Bibliography No. 1—revised 1938.)

There is a section on agricultural cooperatives.

*Producers and consumers: A study in cooperative relations.* By Margaret Digby. London, Horace Plunkett Foundation, 1938. 254 pp. (2d ed., rev.)

Critical analysis of the relationships between agricultural and consumers' cooperatives, from the time of the formation of the British Cooperative Union in 1869 to the present. Discusses, commodity by commodity, the sources of supply and the avenues and development of cooperative trade in each.

*Summary of credit union operations, 1936.* Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1938. 4 pp. (Serial No. R. 740, reprint from April 1938 Monthly Labor Review.)

*Operations of retail cooperatives, 1936.* Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1938. 30 pp. (Serial No. R. 718.)

*Rural cooperative telephones in Tennessee.* By Charles E. Allred and others. Knoxville, University of Tennessee, Department of Agricultural Economics and Rural Sociology, Agricultural Experiment Station, 1937. 34 pp. (Rural Research Series, Monograph No. 45.)

Discusses methods of organization and management of cooperative telephone associations, describes in detail two associations in Tennessee, and gives a rather detailed bibliography of material regarding the telephone industry in rural areas, including references on cooperative and mutual telephone associations.

*Rapports et comptes sur l'activité des organes de l'Union suisse des coopératives de consommation (U. S. C.) Bâle en 1937.* Basel, 1938. 109 pp.

Reviews activities of the various sections of the Swiss Union of Cooperative Societies in 1937.

*Kooperativ verksamhet i Sverige, år 1935.* Stockholm, Socialstyrelsen, 1938. 57 pp.

Report on cooperative associations of various types in Sweden in 1935.

## *Cost and Standards of Living*

*Consumption habits of the American people.* Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1938. 14 pp. (Serial No. R. 722, reprint from March 1938 Monthly Labor Review.)

*Chicago standard budget for dependent families, 1937.* Chicago, Council of Social Agencies, 1937. 40 pp.

The minimum standard of normal living on which estimates for the budget are made must, according to this outline, furnish everything requisite for a "manner of living that will make possible a high standard of physical, mental, and moral health and efficiency for adults; the full physical and mental growth of children; and provision for their moral welfare."

*Quantity and cost budgets for four income levels—I, Family of an executive, II, Family of a clerk, III, Family of a wage earner, IV, Dependent families or children; prices for San Francisco, October, 1937.* Berkeley, University of California, Heller Committee for Research in Social Economics, [1938?]. 95 pp.; mimeographed.

These budgets, the committee explains, are designed to serve a twofold purpose—to give an estimate of the cost of a "health and decency" living standard at different income levels at a particular date and locality, and to measure fluctuations in cost of living from year to year. The budgets do not indicate the ideal way of spending to be followed by all families, but the committee believes they do represent "a decent standard within which there is room for variation according to individual circumstances and tastes."

*Clothing budgets—prices for San Francisco, October 1937.* (Supplement to Quantity and cost budgets for four income levels.) Berkeley, University of California, Heller Committee for Research in Social Economics, [1938?]. 34 pp.; mimeographed.

The income levels selected for these budgets are those of an executive, a clerk, a wage earner, and a dependent family.

*Trend in cost of living index numbers, 1929–37.* (In Irish Trade Journal and Statistical Bulletin, Department of Industry and Commerce, Dublin, March 1938, pp. 5–8; charts.)

Compares cost-of-living index numbers for Ireland with those for various other countries.

## *Economic and Social Problems*

*The folklore of capitalism.* By Thurman W. Arnold. New Haven, Yale University Press, 1937. 400 pp.

The author attempts an objective analysis and diagnosis of the national economy. He describes the "myths" and "ceremonies" associated with the individualistic ideal and the dictatorial character of business institutions. He believes

that the survival of these "myths" and "ceremonies" hampers the growth of organizations based upon the conception of public responsibilities and at the same time interferes with the real freedom of the individual.

*The growth of collective economy.* By F. E. Lawley. London, P. S. King & Son, Ltd., 1938. In 2 vols.; 524 and 485 pp.

A study of the processes of transition from private enterprise to public and cooperative ownership and control in countries other than Russia. The first volume deals with developments within the separate countries; the second volume is concerned with the need for collective intervention in the international sphere and with efforts to meet the need. The book is mainly factual but the author views favorably most of the efforts made to achieve public and cooperative ownership and collective action.

*Growth of American manufacturing areas—a comparative analysis with special emphasis on trends in the Pittsburgh district.* By Glenn E. McLaughlin. Pittsburgh, University of Pittsburgh, Bureau of Business Research, 1938. 358 pp., charts. (Monograph No. 7.)

The factual materials are derived mainly from the publications of the U. S. Bureau of the Census, and include figures of total population, the gainfully occupied, wage earners, and value added by manufacture. By the use of these data, the author attempts to measure comparative changes in manufacturing in selected States and cities from 1870 to 1935. In the second part he analyzes the causes of regional shifts and describes in detail the comparative position of the Pittsburgh district.

*Early British economics, from the XIIIth to the middle of the XVIIIth century.* By M. Beer. London, George Allen & Unwin, Ltd., 1938. 250 pp.

Summary, by an author who has written extensively on the history of economic thought, of the outstanding writings of Englishmen on economic questions before 1750. The author traces the rise and ascendancy of economic thought centering around trade and describes the beginnings of classical economics associated with the predominance of British technology.

*Scottish industry today.* By C. A. Oakley. Edinburgh and London, Moray Press, 1937. 292 pp., map, illus.

This survey of recent developments in industry in Scotland, undertaken for the Scottish Development Council, deals particularly with the extent to which new industries have been introduced and the progress they are making, and the degree of success attained in efforts to modernize and mechanize established, traditional Scottish industries.

*Economic planning in corporative Portugal.* By Freppel Cotta. London, P. S. King & Son, Ltd., 1937. xiv, 188 pp.; bibliography.

Deals with the historical background of the present corporative organization of the social and economic structure of Portugal, the basic principles of the system, and their operation with regard to planned economy for various agricultural products, forestry, fishing, manufacturing, insurance and banking, labor organization, and social welfare.

*Industrial psychology in Russia.* By Morris S. Viteles. (In Occupational Psychology, National Institute of Industrial Psychology, London, April 1938, Vol. 12, No. 2, pp. 85–103.)

Based mainly upon the author's observations during a stay of 8 months in the Soviet Union.

*Economic status of the aged.* By Marjorie Shearon. (In Social Security Bulletin. U. S. Social Security Board, Washington, March 1938, pp. 5–16.)

Data from this article are published in this issue of the Monthly Labor Review.

*The family and the depression: A study of one hundred Chicago families.* By Ruth Shonle Cavan and Katherine Howland Ranck. Chicago, University of Chicago Press, 1938. 209 pp.; bibliography.

The 100 families were studied from psychiatric and sociological viewpoints, to discover their reaction to misfortunes resulting from the depression. According to this analysis, "well organized" families did not disintegrate even when seriously affected by financial troubles, but "unorganized or disorganized" families became more disorganized under the strain of the depression.

*Labor and social organization.* By David Aloysius McCabe and Richard Allen Lester. Boston, Little, Brown & Co., 1938. 374 pp.

Sixth and concluding volume in a series of studies of economics and social institutions. It is presented by the editor of the series as "a concise, up-to-date textbook, applying modern methods of economic analysis to the field of labor." It deals with the rise, structure, policies, and methods of organized labor; labor legislation; social security; and various systems and theories of social reorganization.

*A citizen's guide to social service.* By J. Q. Henriques. London, George Allen & Unwin, Ltd., 1938. 344 pp.

Social problems in England are discussed from the standpoint of changing conditions resulting from rapid expansion of the public social services and from growth of bureaucratic administration. Laws and regulations which govern the social services are explained, and the necessity for cooperation between public and voluntary agencies is discussed. The writer makes practical suggestions for better coordination of social work.

*Drei jahre nationalsozialistische gemeinschaft "Kraft durch Freude."* Berlin, Deutsche Arbeitsfront, [1938?]. 28 pp., illus.

Account of activities of the German society "Power through Joy."

## *Education and Guidance*

*Report of Advisory Committee on Education.* Washington, U. S. Government Printing Office, 1938. 243 pp., maps, charts.

Appointed by the President on September 19, 1936, the committee studied the existing situation in the schools, the inequality of educational opportunity, and the national interest in education,, and has made recommendations for the improvement and extension of specific educational facilities through Federal aid.

*Digest of annual reports of State boards for vocational education to Office of Education, fiscal year ended June 30, 1937.* Washington, U. S. Office of Education, 1938. 95 pp., charts.

Certain data on enrollment for vocational education, from this publication, are given in this issue of the Monthly Labor Review.

*A primer of vocational guidance.* Edited by W. G. Workman. [Atlanta?], National Youth Administration of Georgia, 1937. 67 pp.; mimeographed.

Compiled with a view to making available to N. Y. A. supervisors some basic principles and procedures of the guidance process. Among topics dealt with are the interview, job training, placement, and discovering employment opportunities.

*Vocational rehabilitation.* Indianapolis, Indiana Department of Public Instruction, [1938?]. 39 pp., illus. (Bulletin No. 118.)

Describes general policies in Indiana in regard to vocational rehabilitation, reviews some of the State's activities in this field, and gives instruction and advice to persons in need of rehabilitation.

*Vocations for the visually handicapped: A study of the need for vocational guidance in residential schools for the blind.* By Louise Wilber. New York, American Foundation for the Blind, 1937. 224 pp.; bibliography.

Reviews the economic and social position of the blind from primitive times, and trends of vocational education for the visually handicapped since 1850. It is pointed out that vocational counseling of the blind is an individual problem to be undertaken by experts.

*Finding your work—vocational first-aid for the puzzled youth.* By J. Gustav White. New York, Association Press, 1938. 64 pp.

*Finding yourself in your work—a guide for career and personality.* By Harry Walker Hepner. New York, D. Appleton-Century Co., Inc., 1937. xviii, 297 pp., illus.

Presents graphic methods for self-study. Part I offers a simple method of appreciating the important influences in one's own personality; part II contains suggestions for the organization of self-knowledge; and part III gives various tests to enable the reader to obtain helpful estimates of his or her own capacities and vocational tendencies.

*Preparation for seeking employment.* By Howard Lee Davis. New York, John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1937. 39 pp.

Counsel for job seekers presented with a view to assisting them to become expert in "selling" themselves.

*Student guidance techniques: A handbook for counselors in high schools and colleges.* By D. G. Paterson, G. G. Schneidler, and E. G. Williamson. New York and London, McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1938. xviii, 316 pp.

Designed to aid in removing what the authors consider a serious hindrance to the prompt expansion of worth-while services for student guidance, namely, the dearth of technically trained persons who can be entrusted with the grave responsibilities involved in the effort to provide adequate guidance for young people.

## *Employment and Unemployment*

*Interim report on partial unemployment* [*New York*]. Albany, Department of Labor, Division of Placement and Unemployment Insurance, 1938. Various paging; charts.

*A study of industrial employment in Oregon.* By James C. Rettie and Virgil L. Sexton. Salem, Oregon State Planning Board, 1938. 96 pp., charts.

Analysis of weekly employment and pay-roll statistics indicates that many industries covered by the Oregon Unemployment Compensation Act are highly seasonal in their operation and that about one-third, or approximately 50,000, of all the employees in these insured occupations were affected by a loss of employment in 1936.

*Assuring employment or income to wage earners—a case study.* By F. Beatrice Brower. New York, National Industrial Conference Board, Inc., 1938. 19 pp. (Studies in Personnel Policy, No. 7.)

Descriptions of plans in operation in 8 companies for assuring employment or income either through guaranteed employment or payment of an annual wage. The experience under 4 plans which have been discontinued is also given.

*Consumers' credits and unemployment.* By J. E. Meade. London, Oxford University Press, 1938. 115 pp.

The author holds that consumers' credits derived from currency expansion are desirable, if limited to unemployment caused by cyclical business depression and if safeguards are adopted such as a deflationary pay-roll tax as soon as unemployment declines to a specified level.

*Introduction to the theory of employment.* By Joan Robinson. New York, Macmillan Co., 1937. 127 pp.

A "simplified account" of recent literature, notably the writings of J. M. Keynes. The author holds that recent world changes remove the possibilities of rapid capital expansion for private profit, so that the motive for expanding private investment, on which employment has largely depended, has become "chronically weak." Possible aids in promoting employment include a continuing reduction in the rate of interest, an extension of public investment, and a drastic redistribution of income. The author concludes that since all these policies encounter serious difficulties and violent opposition, it remains to be seen whether or not the present economic system can prove to be sufficiently adaptable.

## *Health and Industrial Hygiene*

*Disabling sickness among male industrial employees, 1937.* By William M. Gafafer and Elizabeth S. Frasier. (In Public Health Reports, U. S. Public Health Service, Washington, April 8, 1938, pp. 519-523; charts.)

This report, which is made annually from data of a group of industrial sick-benefit associations, shows that the sickness and nonindustrial injury rate for 1937 was higher than for any other year since 1929 and approximately 10 percent higher than for 1936.

*Frequency of sickness and nonindustrial accidents causing disability lasting 8 calendar days or longer, among 60,000 white male railroad employees, 1930–34, inclusive.* By William M. Gafafer. (In Public Health Reports, U. S. Public Health Service, Washington, April 15, 1938, pp. 555–573.)

The data presented are taken from sickness records of 6 railroads. Over 3,000,000 days of disability were recorded. The average daily percentage of employees disabled was 3.7.

*Medical service in industry and workmen's compensation laws.* By M. N. Newquist, M. D. Chicago, American College of Surgeons, 1938. 70 pp., maps, charts.

The study upon which the findings and recommendations in this report are based included surveys of medical services in a large number of industrial estab-

lishments, and covered the purpose and development of industrial medicine, organization of an industrial medical-service staff, functions of the industrial medical and surgical service, illness and injury experience and its costs, a history of workmen's compensation laws, and essential features of workmen's compensation laws and insurance systems.

*Report of Director-General of Public Health, New South Wales, 1936.* Sydney, 1938. 180 pp.

Contains a section on industrial health and results of a special study of the effects on the lungs of coal, metalliferous, and sandstone mining and other occupations.

*Principles of medical statistics.* By A. Bradford Hill. London, Lancet Limited, 1937. 171 pp.

Considers the proper use of statistics in evaluating results of different types of medical treatment. The book was written to meet the demand among both clinical and public-health workers for information regarding the technique of analyzing and testing the results of such data.

*Relationship of a rural health program to the needs in the area.* By Joseph W. Mountin, M. D., Elliot H. Pennell, and Hazel O'Hara. Washington, U. S. Public Health Service, 1937. 21 pp. (Reprint No. 1858 from Public Health Reports, September 10, 1937.)

## *Housing*

*Federal housing legislation of 1938.* Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1938. 3 pp. (Serial No. R. 727, reprint from March 1938 Monthly Labor Review.)

*The effects of slum clearance and rehousing on family and community relationships in Minneapolis.* By F. Stuart Chapin. (In American Journal of Sociology, Chicago, March 1938, pp. 744–763.)

Study of the relocation of 171 families in which appraisal is made of the degree to which the tenants gained or lost as a result of rehousing and change of location.

*Housing of families served by family caring agencies, Rochester, New York.* Rochester, Council of Social Agencies, 1937. 33 pp.

Points covered include condition of dwellings, location, rentals, room occupany, types of heating equipment, and sanitary facilities.

*Rent rebates and rehousing in Manchester.* By J. R. Jarmain. (In The Manchester School, Manchester, England, Vol. IX, No. 1, 1938, pp. 46–63.)

Discussion of the methods employed in granting rent rebates to families with inadequate incomes, under the Hulme scheme, in Manchester, England.

*First (progress) report of Victoria, Australia, Housing Investigation and Slum Abolition Board, 1936–1937.* Melbourne, [1938?]. 135 pp., maps, illus.

Shows existing substandard conditions and outlines remedial measures for slum reclamation and housing of the lower-paid worker.

*The case against home ownership.* By Stuart Chase. (In Survey Graphic, New York, May 1938, pp. 261–267.)

In view of the uncertainties of job tenure, and changed social conditions, the author believes that in general home ownership is unwise for those with low incomes.

*Building societies [Great Britain]—statistical summary, 1927–37.* London, Registry of Friendly Societies, 1938. 3 pp.

A break-down of building society statistics, showing number of share investors, depositors, and borrowers, and amount of liabilities and assets, by year, 1927 to 1937. Data on British building societies, 1925–37, taken from The Economist (London) of April 23, 1938, are published in this issue of the Monthly Labor Review.

## *Industrial Accidents and Workmen's Compensation*

*Discussion of industrial accidents and diseases: 1937 convention of International Association of Industrial Accident Boards and Commissions, York Harbor, Maine.* Washington, U. S. Division of Labor Standards, 1938. 216 pp. (Bulletin No. 17.)

*Rapport sur l'application générale de la loi du 9 avril 1898 relative aux accidents du travail sur la situation des sociétés d'assurances régies par ladite loi et sur le fonctionnement du fonds de garantie (année 1934).* Paris, Ministère du Travail, 1938. 42 pp.

The report covers the situation of French insurance companies, registered under the law of 1898, with regard to industrial accidents, and the operations of the guaranty funds in 1934.

*Yrkesinspektionens verksamhet år 1936.* Stockholm, Socialstyrelsen, 1938. 100 pp., illus.

Annual report on factory inspection in Sweden, for the year 1936, including measures for prevention of industrial accidents and diseases.

*Bibliography on driving safety.* [Cambridge, Mass.?], Harvard Bureau for Street Traffic Research, [1937?]. 157 pp.

References to material on causes and prevention of motor-vehicle accidents make up half the bibliography.

## *Industrial Relations*

*Civil liberties and industrial conflict.* By Roger N. Baldwin and Clarence B. Randall. Cambridge, Harvard University Press, 1938. 137 pp.

Lectures delivered at Harvard University in April 1938 representing different points of view on a subject of outstanding current interest. One of the lecturers is connected with the American Civil Liberties Union and the other with the Inland Steel Co.

*Labor on new fronts.* By Robert R. R. Brooks. New York, Public Affairs Committee, Inc., 1938. 32 pp., charts. (Public Affairs Pamphlet No. 21.)

The expression "new fronts" is applied to the Committee for Industrial Organization, the new governmental method of dealing with labor relations through the National Labor Relations Board, and political action on labor problems through the American Labor Party. The pamphlet discusses the effects upon workers and labor movements of these new forces.

*Labor czars: A history of labor racketeering.* By Harold Seidman. New York, Liveright Publishing Corporation, 1938. 317 pp.

*The promise of industrial arbitration.* By Webb Waldron. (In Survey Graphic, New York, May 1938, pp. 275–278, 306–311.)

Reviews and discusses some of the cases involving interpretation and application of union agreements that have been taken up by the American Arbitration Association's newly-formed tribunal for voluntary industrial arbitration.

*Shall strikes be outlawed?* By Joel Seidman. (In Industrial Democracy, League for Industrial Democracy, New York, January 1938, pp. 3–31.)

Discussion of compulsory arbitration in theory and in practice. A bibliography is appended.

*State regulation of labor relations.* By Bryant Putney. Washington, Editorial Research Reports, 1013 Thirteenth Street NW., 1937. 18 pp. (Vol. 2, 1937, No. 18.)

Reviews briefly early laws dealing with labor disputes and the recent movement to create State and local boards to handle industrial relations. The possibility of jurisdictional conflicts between the National Labor Relations Board and similar agencies in the States is discussed.

*The status of industrial relations.* New York, American Management Association, 1938. 43 pp. (Personnel Series No. 32.)

*The practical nature of collective cooperation.* New York, American Management Association, 1938. 44 pp. (Personnel Series No. 34.)

*The role of the supervisor in labor relations.* New York, American Management Association, 1938. 34 pp. (Personnel Series No. 33.)

This series of booklets, dealing with personnel management, collective bargaining, trade-unionism, and other phases of industrial relations, consists of transcripts of papers presented at the Personnel Conference of the American Management Association held at Chicago, February 15–17, 1938, and the question-and-answer discussions that followed the reading of the papers. Much of the subject matter deals with experiences of employers and personnel directors with National Labor Relations Board rulings and activities, and discussion of policies and

practices to be followed by management in effecting adjustment to changed conditions with regard to union recognition and collective bargaining.

*Fixing wage rates in New York dress industry.* By Anne Gould. (In Labor Information Bulletin, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, Washington, April 1938, pp. 1–5.)

*Arbitration and the minimum wage in Australia.* By Edward J. Mehren. (In Factory, New York, March 1938, pp. 79–82.)

Presents the public, employer, and employee attitudes toward the Australian system of settling labor disputes through arbitration.

*La réglementation conventionnelle des salaires en Belgique.* By Joseph Mineur. Gembloux, Imprimerie J. Duculot, Editeur, 1936. 328 pp.; bibliography. (Collection de l'École des Sciences politiques et sociales de l'Université de Louvain.)

In this study of collective wage agreements in Belgium, the historical background of industrial agreements is reviewed and an account is given of the scope and provisions of agreements concluded in the different industries.

*Arbetsinställelser och kollektivavtal samt förlikningsmännens verksamhet år 1936.* Stockholm, Socialstyrelsen, 1938. 138 pp.

Annual report on industrial disputes, trade agreements, and conciliation in Sweden in 1936. In Swedish, with table of contents and résumé in French.

## *Labor and Social Legislation*

*Proceedings of Fourth National Conference on Labor Legislation, Washington, D. C., October 25–27, 1937.* Washington, U. S. Division of Labor Standards, 1938. 159 pp. (Bulletin No. 18.)

*Southern Regional Conference on Labor Legislation.* Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1938. 3 pp. (Serial No. R. 739, reprint from April 1938 Monthly Labor Review.)

The complete report of the proceedings of this conference will be published in bulletin form by the Division of Labor Standards of the Department of Labor.

*Social welfare laws of the forty-eight States.* Compiled by Wendell Huston. Seattle, Wendell Huston Co., 1937. Various paging. 3d ed.

In addition to public relief laws, the volume contains laws on matters which today are considered a vital part of social welfare, such as child labor, minimum wages, hours of labor, public contracts, safety and health, labor relations, etc.

*La législation suisse en matière de réglementation du travail et d'assurances sociales pendant l'année 1936.* Berne, Switzerland, Département fédéral de l'Économie publique, 1937. 282 pp. (La Vie Économique, 29e supplément, December 1937.)

Text of Federal and cantonal labor and social-insurance laws enacted in Switzerland in 1936.

## *Labor Organization and Activities*

*Characteristics of company unions.* By Florence Peterson and Joseph J. Senturia. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1938. 10 pp., charts. (Serial No. R. 736, reprint from April 1938 Monthly Labor Review.)

Summary of forthcoming bulletin (No. 634) containing the detailed report of the survey of company unions made by the Bureau of Labor Statistics.

*The elements of trade unionism—simple answers to simple questions.* By Joel Seidman. Detroit, United Automobile Workers of America, Educational Department, 1937. 30 pp.

*The fight for the charter.* By Neil Stewart. London, Chapman & Hall, Ltd., 1937. 272 pp.

A concise account of one of the major periods in the nineteenth-century history of the British labor movement. The author describes Chartism as an early phase of the struggle between capitalism and socialism.

*Labor's constructive program for an organized nation.* Dublin, Irish Free State, Labor Party, 1938. 36 pp.

## *Land Utilization*

*Bibliography on land utilization, 1918–36.* Compiled by Louise O. Bercaw and Annie M. Hannay. Washington, U. S. Department of Agriculture, 1938. 1508 pp. (Miscellaneous Publication No. 284.)

Selected references to literature on economic aspects of land utilization and land policy in the United States and foreign countries. The specific phases covered include cooperative organizations, relief projects, resettlement, and subsistence farming, gardens, and homesteads. The bibliography is annotated and there is a detailed index.

*The wasted land.* By Gerald W. Johnson. Chapel Hill, University of North Carolina Press, 1937. 110 pp.

Described by the author as essentially a commentary on "Southern Regions of the United States" (University of North Carolina Press, 1936), written by Howard W. Odum for the Southern Regional Committee of the Social Science Research Council. A chapter is devoted to "the waste of the people." The author emphasizes the need for a regional as distinguished from a State point of view. He holds that the direction of progress is indicated broadly by the work of the Tennessee Valley Authority, but believes that the coordinating and directing agency must deal with the entire Southeast and should be essentially a regional rather than a Federal or State agency.

## *Legal Aid*

*Sixty-second annual report of the Legal Aid Society [New York City], for year 1937.* New York, 1938. 54 pp.

Cases reported for 1937 numbered 28,846, and the amount received for clients totaled $66,643.37, exclusive of outside settlements.

## *Negro in Industry*

*Placement of colored workers by U. S. Employment Service.* Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1938. 4 pp. (Serial No. R. 741, reprint from April 1938 Monthly Labor Review.)

*Report of New York State Temporary Commission on Condition of Urban Colored Population, to Legislature of State of New York.* Albany, 1938. 95 pp. (Legislative document, 1938, No. 63.)

Reviewed in this issue.

## *Occupations*

*A social-economic grouping of the gainful workers of the United States, 1930.* Washington, U. S. Bureau of the Census, 1938. 264 pp.

Summary data from this report are given in this issue of the Monthly Labor Review.

*Exploring the world of work: A guidebook to occupations.* By G. Vernon Bennett and Georgia May Sachs. Los Angeles, Society for Occupational Research, 1937. 596 pp.

The occupations studied are grouped under the following general heads: Agriculture; food and shelter; clothing and textiles; building and construction; woodworking and metal trades; electrical work; artistry; chemistry and mining; transportation; selling and merchandising; finance and clerical work; music and dramatics; religious and educational work; literary work, printing, and publishing; law and public protection; health and healing; domestic and personal service; and social service. Each of these groups is followed by lists of references for teachers and pupils.

*My vocation—or what eminent Americans think of their callings.* Selected and arranged by Earl G. Lockhart. New York, H. W. Wilson Co., 1938. 334 pp.

Contributions from 25 outstanding leaders who discuss the advantages and disadvantages in their respective fields of work and the qualifications and conditions which are most likely to result in success in those professions or occupations.

*Vocational information series.* Prepared under direction of Chloris Shade, collaborating with teachers and associated research group, Social Science Department, Joliet Township High School. Chicago, Morgan-Dillon & Co., 1937. Various paging.

A series of 55 pamphlets covering a wide range of vocations. Among the newest occupational fields surveyed are air conditioning, radio and television, industrial design, and aviation.

*A bibliography of source materials on occupations.* [Atlanta?], National Youth Administration of Georgia, 1938. 18 pp.; mimeographed. (Vocational Information Bulletin 5.)

## Old-Age Pensions

*Report of Delaware Old Age Welfare Commission for year 1937.* Dover, 1938. 6 pp.

Gives number of beneficiaries, by county, color, and sex, during each month of 1937, and a statement of expenditures for pensions and various items of administration.

*The attitudes and adjustments of recipients of old-age assistance in up-State and metropolitan New York.* By Christine Margaret Morgan. New York, Columbia University, 1937. 131 pp. (Archives of Psychology, No. 214.)

*Selected questions and answers on Railroad Retirement Act.* Washington, U. S. Railroad Retirement Board, 1937. 56 pp.

*Pensions: You and your family.* By Walter Hazell. London, Jordan & Sons, Ltd., 1938. 46 pp.

Discussion of the effect of the British Contributory Pensions (Voluntary Contributors) Act, 1937, which went into force on January 3, 1938. According to the author, it is estimated that about 2 million additional persons will be enabled to obtain annuities by voluntary contribution.

## Older Workers in Industry

*The job problem for older workers.* By Buel W. Patch. Washington, Editorial Research Reports, 1013 Thirteenth Street NW., 1938. 13 pp. (Vol. 1, 1938, No. 12.)

The principal headings under which the subject is discussed are: Federal study of age factor in employment; extent of age discrimination in industry; reasons for development of age barrier; and security measures for older workers.

*Study of the age group sixty-five years of age and older.* [Richmond?], Virginia State Planning Board, 1937. 10 text pp., paster, charts.

According to an estimate based on findings of this study, the number of persons 65 years of age or over in Virginia in 1940 will be 144,323, as compared with 118,964 in 1930 and 100,068 in 1920.

## Planning

*The master plan with a discussion of the theory of community land-planning legislation.* By Edward M. Bassett. New York, Russell Sage Foundation, 1938. 151 pp.

A master plan is regarded by the author of this book as an important part of comprehensive city and regional planning. This volume presents the essentials of such a plan.

## Prices

*Price and price policies.* By Walton Hamilton. New York and London, McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1938. 565 pp.

*Prices in the United States.* By Rev. John S. Cronin. New York, Paulist Press, 1937. 32 pp. (Social Action Series, No. 9.)

The subject is considered in its relation to Catholic social teaching.

## Prison Labor

*The prison problem in the District of Columbia.* Washington, U. S. Prison Industries Reorganization Administration, 1938. 191 pp., map, charts.

Reviews existing conditions and recommends needed changes.

## *Relief Measures and Statistics*

*Unemployment relief in Arizona from October 1, 1932, through December 31, 1936, with special analysis of rural and town relief households.* By E. D. Tetreau. Tucson, University of Arizona, College of Agriculture, 1937. 128 pp., map, charts. (Bulletin No. 156.)

*Annual report of Colorado Department of Public Welfare, 1937.* Denver, 1937. 46 pp., maps, charts. (Quarterly Bulletin, Vol. 1, No. 4.)

Contains information on the various types of public aid, including old-age pensions and insurance, aid to the blind, and aid to dependent children, as well as general relief.

*Who are on relief? A study of relief clients of Bloomington, Illinois.* By F. Russell Glasener. Normal, Illinois State Normal University, 1937. 47 pp., charts. (Bulletin, Vol. XXXV, No. 146.)

According to this survey, approximately four-fifths of all adults on relief are without qualifications for reemployment.

*What turning relief back to local community meant in Cincinnati.* By Ellery F. Reed. (In Social Service Review, Chicago, March 1938, pp. 1–20).

*The meaning of the Houston Survey.* Houston, Texas, Houston Survey Committee, 1937. 117 pp.

A nontechnical report based upon the voluminous findings of a survey in Houston of family welfare and relief work, care of dependent children, public health and organized care of the sick, public-welfare organization, group work and leisure-time activities, and community organization.

*Standards of relief: An analysis of one hundred family case records.* By Anna Roselle Johnson. Philadelphia, University of Pennsylvania, 1938. 153 pp., charts.

According to the author, this survey is a pioneer attempt to study trends in relief giving and case-work treatment in Washington, D. C. Among other subjects upon which the investigation throws light are the principal causes of or factors contributing to dependency; dependent families from an educational and vocational viewpoint; and the social and economic condition of relief families.

*The permanent problem of relief.* By Buel W. Patch. Washington, Editorial Research Reports, 1013 Thirteenth Street NW., 1938. 13 pp. (Vol. 1, 1938, No. 8.)

Critical examination of Federal relief policies, social-security measures, and emergency relief.

*The public assistance worker.* Edited by Russell H. Kurtz. New York, Russell Sage Foundation, 1938. 224 pp.

Collection of articles on various phases of public assistance, dealing particularly with the ways in which assistance may be given.

## *Sickness Insurance*

*Statistika nemocenského pojištění za rok 1936.* Prague, Ustredni Socialni Pojišťovna, 1937. 180 pp.

Statistics of the sickness-insurance system in Czechoslovakia for the year 1936. In Czech, with certain portions also in French and in German.

*Sickness and maternity insurance in France.* Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1938. 16 pp. (Serial No. R. 731, reprint from March 1938 Monthly Labor Review.)

*National Health Insurance Fund accounts for year ended December 31, 1936.* London, Exchequer and Audit Department, 1938. 30 pp.

Financial statements for 1936 of the National Health Insurance Fund for England and of the separate funds set up for Scotland and Wales.

## *Technological Changes*

*Power farming and labor displacement in the Cotton Belt, 1937.* By Paul S. Taylor. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1938. 29 pp. (Serial No. R. 737, reprint from Monthly Labor Review, March and April 1938.)

*Summary of findings to date, March 1938 [of National Research Project on Reemployment Opportunities and Recent Changes in Industrial Techniques]*. By David Weintraub and Irving Kaplan. Washington, U. S. Works Progress Administration, 1938. 156 pp., charts, illus.

The work of the National Research Project is summarized under three main headings: Recent developments in industrial research and techniques; recent changes in productivity, production, and employment; and reemployment problems of displaced workers. Brief references are made to a large number of studies in various fields of industry and agriculture.

## Textile Industry

*Report of the Textile Labor Inquiry Committee [Bombay], 1937–38: Volume I—Interim report.* Bombay, 1938. 104 pp.

Survey of conditions in the textile industry of Bombay Province, India, including wages paid and trends in productive activity. Earnings of cotton-mill workers in Bombay City and Island in July 1937, as shown in the report, are published in this issue of the Monthly Labor Review.

## Transportation

*Government regulation of transportation.* By Emory R. Johnson. New York, D. Appleton-Century Co., Inc., 1938. 680 pp.

A volume designed for textbook use. One chapter deals with public regulation of railroad labor and gives a summary history of the subject. Sections of other chapters deal with labor aspects of public regulation of other forms of transportation. The author holds that regulation of the various forms of transportation should be extended simultaneously and in such manner as to promote coordination and a well-rounded development.

## Unemployment Insurance

*First annual report of Unemployment Compensation Commission of Delaware, 1938.* New Castle, 1938. 32 pp., paster, charts.

Provisions of the unemployment-insurance law, which becomes operative for the payment of benefits in January 1939, and of the law setting up the State employment service, are outlined, and problems connected with future administration of the law are discussed.

*The administration of unemployment insurance and the public employment service in Germany.* By Robert Frase. Washington, U. S. Social Security Board. 1938. 166 pp., charts; bibliography.

The general features of the German unemployment-insurance system are described, and there is a detailed discussion of the administrative organization procedures and of staff services.

*Administration of unemployment insurance and the public employment service in Great Britain.* By Walter Matscheck. Washington, U. S. Social Security Board, [1938?]. 191 pp.; bibliography.

General summary of the British unemployment-insurance system and a detailed description of administrative organization, controls, and procedures. A comparative summary points out differences between the British system and the systems set up in the different States in this country.

*Trade disputes disqualification clause under British Unemployment Insurance Acts.* By Peter T. Swanish. Chicago, University of Chicago, School of Business, 1937. 73 pp. (Studies in Business Administration, Vol. VIII, No. I.)

Analyzes British principles and rulings on disqualification for unemployment benefits as a result of trade disputes. This is said to be a branch of administrative law which has been largely ignored by American writers and a problem with which administrators of the State laws will be required to deal.

*Unemployment fund accounts, 1936.* London, Exchequer and Audit Department, 1938. 11 pp.

This financial statement of the British unemployment-insurance fund contains a separate report for the agricultural account and the final statement for the transitional-payments account.

## *Vacations*

*Collective agreements providing for payment of wages for holidays [in Great Britain].* (In Ministry of Labor Gazette, London, March 1938, pp. 86–89.)

Tabular presentation and text discussion of vacation provisions of collective agreements in operation at beginning of March 1938, showing length of annual vacation paid for and service requirements, by industry or occupation. The number of workpeople covered by these provisions is estimated at about 3 million, exclusive of salaried employees and certain other groups.

## *Wages and Hours of Labor*

*Earnings and hours in ammunition industry, October, 1937.* Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1938. 15 pp. (Serial No. R. 719, reprint from May 1938 Monthly Labor Review.)

*Average hourly earnings in cotton-goods industry, 1937.* Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1938. 25 pp. (Serial No. R. 747, reprint from April 1938 Monthly Labor Review.)

*Comparison of hours and wages of employees in 132 identical firms manufacturing jewelry in Rhode Island before and after the mandatory wage order.* Providence, Department of Labor, Division of Women and Children, 1938. 8 pp., charts; mimeographed.

Data show that between August 1936 and August 1937, during which period a mandatory wage order set 30 cents as the minimum hourly rate in the jewelry industry, average hourly earnings of women and minors increased from 32.1 cents to 36.0 cents. Average weekly earnings increased from $12.16 to $13.63, while average hours per week increased only 0.2, from 42.2 to 42.4 hours. The total number of women and minors employed increased from 4,641 to 5,719. Employees subject to the minimum-wage law constituted nearly 55 percent of the total working force of 8,467 in 1936, and nearly 60 percent of the total of 9,657 in 1937.

*The wages and hours of American labor.* By Francis J. Haas. New York, Paulist Press, 1937. 29 pp. (Social Action Series, No. 3.)

Discussion of the subject in relation to Catholic social teaching.

*Wages and hours of labor in Canada, 1929, 1936, and 1937.* Ottawa, Department of Labor, 1938. 157 pp. (Wages and Hours of Labor Report No. 21; supplement to January 1938 Labor Gazette.)

Data from this report are published in this issue of the Monthly Labor Review.

## *Youth Problems*

*Scholastic, economic, and social backgrounds of unemployed youth.* By Walter F. Dearborn and John W. M. Rothney. Cambridge, Harvard University Press, 1938. 172 pp.; bibliography. (Harvard Bulletins in Education, No. 20.)

A questionnaire used in the survey reported upon in this bulletin called for information on employment status; means used in trying to secure jobs; extent of schooling; occupational training; occupational plans for the future; previous training, including the school subject of most practical value, the one the pupil enjoyed most, and the one he would like to study at present; attitude toward education; and remuneration received by those employed or desired by those seeking for employment.

*Looking toward a program for Rochester's young people.* Report of conference on youth problems conducted under auspices of Council of Social Agencies, Rochester, N. Y. Rochester, Council of Social Agencies, 1937. 16 pp., charts; mimeographed.

The findings of this survey indicated a large percentage of unemployment in the 16–25 age group, and showed that from the viewpoint of education and training many of the young persons who leave the Rochester schools are not equipped for the available jobs. According to the report, numerous job opportunities existed in mechanical, electrical, and chemical fields, but there was a dearth of young people with the training requisite for such employment.

*Jahrbuch des jugendrechts für das jahr 1936.* Berlin, Carl Heymanns Verlag, 1937. 196 pp.

Digests of laws, decrees, and regulations in regard to protection, education, and training of youth in Germany, as of 1936.

## *General Reports*

*Statement exhibiting moral and material progress and condition of India during the year 1934–35.* London, India Office, 1937. 145 pp.

In a chapter on agriculture and industry some data on labor are given, including a review of operations under the Factory and Workmen's Compensation Acts and statistics of trade-unions and strikes.

*Statistical abstract of Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry [Japan], 1936–37.* Tokyo, 1938. xix, 221 pp. (In English and French.)

Statistics are furnished on government loans to farmers, 1926–34; wages in farming, sericulture, and raw silk production, 1925–36; and cooperative societies, 1927–36. Some of the data on wages are published in this issue of the Monthly Labor Review.

*Indisch verslag, 1937: II, Statistisch jaaroverzicht van Nederlandsch-Indië over het jaar 1936.* Batavia, Departement van Economische Zaken, Centraal Kantoor voor de Statistiek, 1938. 493 pp. (In Dutch and English.)

Sections of this year book for Netherland India are devoted to population; economic and social condition of the population; production; prices, and index numbers of prices and cost of living. Data are given on wages in the sugar industry of Java and on tobacco and other estates on the east coast of Sumatra; trade-union membership; and accidents in factories and workshops.

*New Zealand official year book, 1938.* Wellington, Census and Statistics Department, 1937. 984 pp., map.

Prices, wages, hours, industrial disputes, trade-unions, employment, unemployment, industrial accidents, and legislation affecting labor, are all given attention in this official presentation of New Zealand statistics.

*Palestine blue book, 1936.* Jerusalem, Government Printer, [1938?]. 427 pp.

Contains data on a great variety of subjects, among which are housing, migration, cost of living, wages, hours of work, and cooperative societies. Some of the wage statistics in the volume were published, from another source, in the June 1937 Monthly Labor Review.

*1936 year book of Jewish social work.* New York, Council of Jewish Federations and Welfare Funds, 1937. Various paging; mimeographed.

The year book has been issued in separate sections dealing with different phases of the work, two covering facilities and service trends in, respectively, child care and vocational services, and care of the aged and medical service, under Jewish auspices.

*A bibliography of published and unpublished social studies on Rochester, New York, 1917–1937.* By Samuel C. Steele. Rochester, Council of Social Agencies, September 1937. 29 pp.

The bibliography is divided into two parts—studies in specific social fields, and general and community studies. The specific social fields covered include employment and unemployment, health, housing, old-age security, recreation, and relief.

*L is for labor: A glossary of labor terms.* By Leane Zugsmith. New York, League of Women Shoppers, Inc., [1938?]. 20 pp.

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